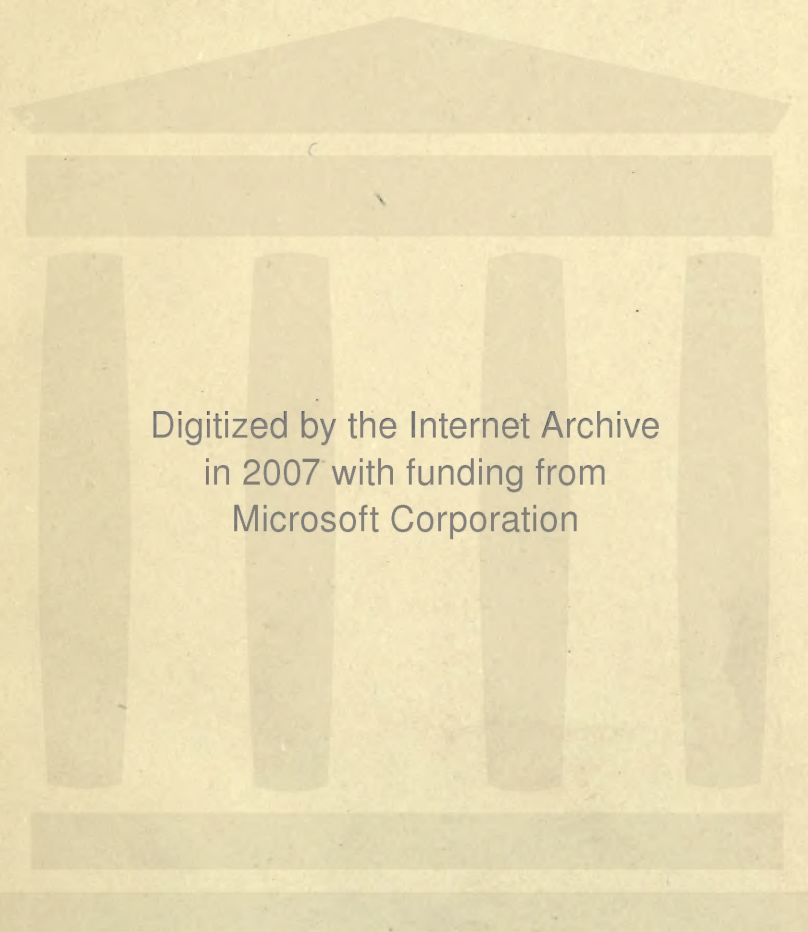


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The Book of History

A History of all Nations

FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES TO THE PRESENT

WITH OVER 8000 ILLUSTRATIONS

WITH AN INTRODUCTION BY

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Volume XIV

SOUTH AND CENTRAL AMERICA

Ancient Civilisations . Discovery and Spanish Conquests

Independence of South and Central America

THE NORTH AND SOUTH POLES

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NORTH AMERICA

Discovery and Explorations

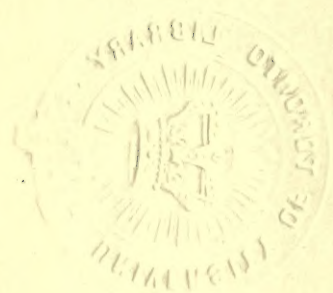
The British Colonies

The American Revolution

15.2.23.

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ANCIENT CIVILISATIONS OF CENTRAL AMERICA THE LAND AND THE PEOPLES AND THE CULTURE OF THE MAYA RACES

AT the Isthmus of Panama, the Cordilleras, the backbone of the American continent, sink so far below the level of the sea that only their highest points rise above the waters to form a narrow range of inconsiderable height; but a few degrees farther north they begin again to tower mightily aloft. The district known to-day as Northern Panama and Costa Rica is a mountainous country; its highest points even there rise nearly 7,000 feet above the sea-level. However, the range is again interrupted in its northward advance.

The marshes of Nicaragua and the Isthmus of Tehuantepec form two more depressions of great depth, and here, rather than at the narrowest point, we should place the true line of demarcation between the peoples of North and of South America.

Between these two points is the only place where Central America seems to have made the attempt at continental expansion so characteristic of the eastern portions of the two great half-continents. But the Isthmus of Yucatan, a thickly wooded, hilly country lying before the mountain plateau of Guatemala, has no developed river system on any large scale; and to its position between the Bay of Campeche and that of Honduras it owes the favourable character of its climate, lying low as it does in the tropic latitudes.

Above the Isthmus of Tehuantepec the northern continent begins to expand, but for nearly ten degrees of latitude farther north it is formed by the Cordilleras, which spread wider and wider, leaving only a narrow strip of shore at their feet on

the east and west, and filling up the main portion of the continent with their peaks. Hence the peculiar character of the Mexican climate. Although the district of ancient Mexico lies entirely within the tropics, yet only on the seaboard is the real tropic temperature encountered, which, if

it brings the advantage of Nature's fullest glory, involves also the disadvantage of a dangerous climate. This disadvantage is nullified by the nature of the country, which consists of a high plateau rising sufficiently high above the sea to be free from the dangers of malaria, and yet only so high as to enjoy an almost uninterrupted spring-time and to provide for man's necessities with generous hand, and reward his toil with richest bounty. The main mountain-range, however, rises boldly and majestically to the regions of the everlasting snow which shines down from the peaks of Popocatepetl and the summit of Orizaba upon the eternal springtide at their feet.

In the immediate neighbourhood of this highest point the Cordilleras divide into an eastern and a western range. Between these there stretches a highland studded with numerous lakes, of moderate size,

but extraordinarily fruitful—the Mexican highland. Here was played out to its close the little-known drama of

the ancient civilisation of America. The country from the Lake of Nicaragua to the northern parts of the valley of Mexico has been the home of one of the oldest civilisations of the New World. It is as yet wholly impossible to give any exact dates for its beginnings in the past,

**Mexico's
Peculiar
Climate**

**The Division
Between North
and South**

**Home of the
Oldest
Civilisations**

and impossible it will probably remain, even if success should crown the attempt to interpret those undeciphered memorials which now look down upon our efforts to solve their riddle. But if anyone, starting with the conception of the "New" World, considers this civilisation as moderately young, he does it great injustice—nearly

Unreliable Histories of America as great as do those who place its most flourishing period more than 11,000 years in the past.

The native authors who have written the history of the peoples of Central America, working in the first century after the conquest, and aided by the old traditions and the pictorial sculptures, occasionally place these beginnings as far back as the last century before the Christian era.

There is little congruity in their productions, which do not inspire us with confidence. The dynasties which have been deciphered from the pictorial decorations previous to the time of Columbus agree with the Spanish and Nahuatlac sources of information, and go back in a great number of individual states from 700 to 800 years before the discovery of America. Only these testify to an almost invariable character of the civilisation, even in the earliest times, and certainly do not go back as far as that primal starting-point at which we are entitled to place the beginnings of the history of these peoples.

We can probably get nearer to the truth with the help of the chronological indications which can now be gathered from the memorials of the Maya civilisation. The Maya were accustomed to reckon from an established point in the past, exactly as we reckon from the birth of Christ; and not only the year, but the actual day, which forms the starting-point of their chronology has been satisfactorily made out. This was June 28th, according to our reckoning, of a certain year dating back more than 3,750 years before the erection of the monument which

Memorials of Maya Civilisation forms the basis of these calculations. Even here, however, we unfortunately have no sure foundation for chronological limitations—for we do not know by our reckoning the time at which the inscription in question was set up, nor can we be certain whether that day marked a real event in the remote history of the people, or whether it represents a point on which to base calculation and inference, resembling in this respect

the Jewish chronology, which goes back to the creation of the world. We must therefore attempt to gain a conception of the earliest history of these civilisations by other means; and their memorials, which have come safely down to us through the storms of centuries, afford richer and more copious information, although it be not entirely complete.

The highly painted pictorial work which the Spanish conquerors of Montezuma's kingdom have handed on to us has induced men for centuries to consider the civilisation of the peoples of Central America as Mexican. This is a great historical error. The Mexicans—or the Aztecs of Mexico-Tenochtitlan, to give them their proper ethnographic name—are neither the founders nor yet the most important representatives of this civilisation to which their name has been unfortunately attached by the sport of circumstance.

Shortly before the Spanish invasion of the district they had obtained a leading position among the peoples of the country. A consciousness of the fact that their civilisation was not the result of their own efforts, but was inherited by them from others, was inherent in the Aztecs themselves, and appears in the chronicles of their native historians; yet so cloudy is it, so interwoven with error, that we could scarce have arrived at the truth with nothing but these indications to help us. That truth became plain only when the ruined monuments were discovered of another civilisation, older and more highly developed than the Aztec, and when something of its language had been learned. But progress in this direction did not begin before the close of the eighteenth century; and even to-day we have advanced only half-way towards the full understanding and appreciation of these highly important historical materials.

The chief obstacle to the progress of discovery has been the fact that historical investigation had taken a wrong direction until recent times. The errors thereby produced were further disseminated by two great visionaries, the Indo-Spanish historian, D. Fernando de Alba Ixtlilxochitl (pronounced Ishtlilshotshil) and the French missionary and author, the Abbé Brasseur, of Bourbourg. The first-named, during the last ten years of the sixteenth century, was the author of a large number of historical treatises concerning the



SCENE ON THE MEXICAN SOUTHERN RAILWAY



A VALLEY IN CENTRAL MEXICO, NEAR THE TOWN OF TAMPICO



TYPICAL SCENERY ON THE ANAHUAC TABLELAND

CHARACTERISTIC LANDSCAPES IN CENTRAL AMERICA

countries of ancient Mexico, based upon extensive investigations into the several modes of writing current among the ancient Indians of the country, and also into the physical characteristics of the western peoples of his own time. In these works he gives an exhaustive account of the civilisation presumed to be the most ancient in Central America, that of the

The Toltecs Toltecs; and he traces back to
Pioneers their civilising influence almost
of Culture all the intellectual development of the ancient nations of Central America. This theory obtained credence far and wide, and to an extraordinary extent.

The rediscovery of the old ruined cities brought about the search for fresh material. It aroused intense enthusiasm in the youthful missionary Brasseur, whom chance had brought to the seat of these old civilisations. Eagerly, but without thorough historical and philological training, he collected Central American antiquities and quickly published a series of works upon the subject. He was not content to pile all the culture of ancient America upon the Toltecs; he hinted also at vague connections with the civilisations of Egypt and India, and attributed to this race an extent of knowledge that the peoples of to-day could scarcely attain again.

American ethnology is a science still in its youth. But the methods of historical criticism have been brought to bear upon the ancient history of Central America; and one of the first results has been to clear away the wild speculations of the Abbé Brasseur and to shatter the tradition of the all-prevailing influence of Toltec civilisation. Two facts are now incontestably established. Among the numerous peoples and constitutions which rapidly followed one another, and which played an important part upon the tableland of Anahuac, there existed, probably towards the end of the first thousand years of the Christian era, a kingdom and a dynasty of

The Riddle rulers who were known as Tol-
of Ancient tecs, from the name of their
America capital, Tollan or Tula. They are mentioned in almost all the native historical documents. The particular historical facts handed down by these documents are extraordinarily scanty; we shall come back to them in treating of the history of Anahuac.

Neither the date at which they existed, nor their relations to the surrounding peoples, afford us the smallest justification for

considering these transitory nationalities as the creators, or even as the chief exponents, of that great civilisation whose highly developed monumental art is rightly the astonishment of the latter-day world. The little principality of the Toltecs was situated at a considerable distance from the seat of that civilisation; moreover, the nationality to which it has given its name belonged to the great mass of Nahuatl-speaking races, to which also the Aztecs of Mexico-Tenochtitlan belonged. The oldest and most highly developed memorials of this civilisation bear unmistakable tokens of its being derived from another race.

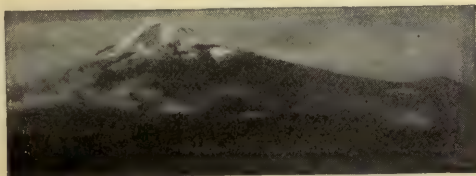
This brings us to the second historical fact that has been indisputably established. The whole of Central America has undoubtedly passed through a uniform process of civilisation. Its foundations, and most of the development that has been built upon those foundations, belong to an era in the remote past; and that particular civilisation with which we meet in all Central America was already in existence, complete in all its details, before the peoples of Nahua origin came

Yucatan the down from the north and in-
Cradle of vaded the district of Central
Civilisation American civilisation; or, at any rate, it was thus complete before the peoples of this civilisation and those of the Nahua race had so closely cohered as to make it possible to speak of them as exercising each an influence upon the other. But if this old civilisation did not originate in the Nahua race, then the Toltecs could not have originated there either. A Nahua race has been their origin; grant this, and the whole Toltec legend, which has so long played a great part in the more ancient history of America, collapses utterly.

The peoples to whom Central America owes the peculiarly high development of its civilisation belong to the Maya race. The name Maya-Indian is now the usual designation of the natives of the Yucatan peninsula, and this limited application of the term has been in force since the time of the discovery of America. Consequently the Yucatan peninsula has been regarded as the cradle of this civilisation for a considerable period. This is, however, a mistake; in the scientific sense the name Maya race included all the peoples speaking a language distinguished by marked differences from the Nahua tongue. The purest dialect of this is the true Maya, but



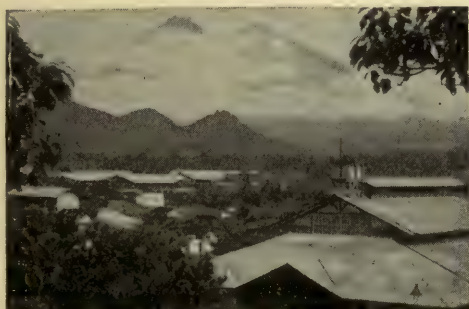
THE MOUNTAINS ABOVE COJUTEPEQUE IN SALVADOR



THE POPOCATEPETL VOLCANO



VOLCANO OF COLIMA IN MEXICO



VOLCANOES OF FUEGO AND ACETENANGO



THE SNOW-COVERED MOUNTAINS ABOVE ESTELI IN NICARAGUA

THE MOUNTAINOUS SCENERY OF CENTRAL AMERICA

its kindred dialects were spoken in the whole district between the Cordilleras and the Atlantic Ocean from the Isthmus of Tehuantepec to Nicaragua. In the luxuriant tropical districts which spread from the foot of the Cordilleras to the Bay of Tabasco, and are watered by the river Usumacinta and Rio de la Pasion, in the modern province of Chiapas in the Mexican republic, and in the neighbouring portions of the small republics of Central America—in these it is that we must locate, if not the birthplace, at any rate the habitation of the Maya peoples, who there brought the civilisation peculiar to their race to a high pitch of development.

Even to-day it is wholly impossible to write the history of the Maya peoples. Such of their old traditions as have come down to us through the medium of the Spaniards are quite insufficient and far scantier than what we learn of the history of their more northern neighbours, the Nahua peoples; even there, and in the few historical texts written in the Maya language, the traditions of the people are still distorted and warped. As, in political life, the Nahua not only pressed upon and crowded the Maya, but to some extent scattered and absorbed them, so, in their historical picture-designs, much is due to the influence of the traditions of these more powerful neighbours. Moreover, these designs, as far as history is concerned, go back only one or two hundred years; the more extensive chronological register of "ahaus" (periods) unfortunately refers only to Yucatan; this province must, upon internal evidence, be considered as conquered comparatively late.

Thus for the earlier history we are almost entirely thrown back on such information as we can gain from the monuments which have come down to us. These are of great richness and extraordinary importance. On the conquest of the Mexican kingdom the Spaniards were so dazzled by this nationality which confronted them, to all seeming, in full vigour, that they concentrated their attention exclusively upon it, and hardly deigned to bestow a glance upon the states of Tlaxcala and Tezcuco in the immediate neighbourhood. Hence we cannot be surprised that they give us no information of these monuments of the ancient Maya kingdom, hidden in the boundless forests, although they far sur-

passed in splendour all that Montezuma's kingdom could display. In the real Aztec district but one single building of monumental character has been preserved (the ruins of Xochicalco, pronounced Shotshicalco), whereas the ancient Maya cities of Chiapas and the neighbouring district afford hundreds of temples and palaces for inspection.

Later again, when the Spaniards entered into closer relations with the Maya peoples on the peninsula of Yucatan, they became acquainted with some, at least, of the interesting buildings which served the early needs of these peoples, yet they did not fully grasp their importance. While the land of Mexico offered them its boundless treasures, the temples of the Maya and the land which loving Maya toil had changed into a garden contained nothing which the greed of the conquerors could have reft away.

Only when the destructive floods of the conquest and its confusion had passed by, and when the first friars came over, did it begin to dawn upon the Spaniards what testimonies of the past lay hidden among

this people, insignificant though they had become. Here it was that they found, what they never met with again on the

whole of this recently discovered continent, a people that had learned to preserve its thoughts in written text. The Maya characters still remain one of the most interesting problems in American antiquarian science. Although some of the early Spanish friars in Yucatan had been able to acquire a knowledge of them sufficiently extensive to enable them to read and, within limits, to write them, yet in the course of time this knowledge has been so entirely lost that the most skilled American antiquarians of to-day cannot agree upon the system to which the Maya writing should be ascribed. To some extent controversy upon the point is futile; the Spanish clergy who were able to learn the writing from the inhabitants have confirmed its phonetic character.

As a comparison of the two shows at a glance, the writing of the Nahua peoples, who probably derived the use of written characters from the Maya, is far in the rear of the Maya system. As they also had already formed a system more or less phonetic for the writing of proper names, all attempts to reduce the Maya writings to the level of ideographic or

Maya History and Tradition

The Spanish Conquest of Mexico

The Lost Maya Writing

purely hieroglyphic characters are pronounced erroneous once and for all. On the other hand, it would apparently be just as erroneous for us to attempt to reduce this writing to an alphabet in the way

that the Spanish clergy of the sixteenth century reduced it, selecting individual elements from the old Maya writing for use in instructing their catechumens. Success has now rewarded the efforts to establish the Maya arithmetical system. Their system of figures employed only four signs altogether; the point for unity, a horizontal stroke for the number 5, and two conventional signs for 20 and 0. This arithmetical equipment is not particularly impressive, and the Maya might be thought far behind many older and newer nations whose systems can employ figures of greater value and in larger number. But the ingenious method has been discovered by which the Maya, with these simple aids—and no use is made of the 20 in this method—can write figures up to the equivalent of many millions, and we rightly feel a high respect for their intellectual penetration. In the Maya arithmetical notation, exactly as in ours, it is the position of the sign that gives it its value; but they placed their signs in a vertical line—whereas we write them horizontally—and employed one of them as a decimal multiplier. In fact the lowest figure of a column had the arithmetical value which it represented; the figures in

the second, fourth, and each following place had twenty times the value of the preceding figure; while figures in the third place had, for reasons based upon the Maya calendar system, only eighteen

times the value of those in the second place. With this notation, which is absolutely unlimited, the Maya were ahead of not only all the peoples of America, but even of the Greeks and Romans. It is certainly to be expected that this people would have employed some ingenious method for writing words; and the delicate signs of their script, the firm execution of their inscriptions in lapidary style, confirm this conjecture, though the inscriptions are unintelligible to us. In spite of this their script is a valuable help in investigation, for it affords the only criterion by which we can precisely separate the districts of Maya and Nahuatl civilisation, which are often with difficulty distinguished, owing to constant communication and their interacting influence one on another. Forever though the Mexicans had also formed a hieroglyphic system capable at least of describing concrete objects intelligibly, yet it was so clumsy in comparison that a



A PAGE FROM THE DRESDEN MAYA MS. The memorials of the Maya civilisation which have been handed down to us show that these people had an extraordinary fancy for adorning their buildings, their sculptures, and even their earthenware with pictorial decorations and inscriptions of considerable length.

glance at a manuscript, together with a complete examination of inscriptions carved in stone, inform us at once to which of those two civilisations the creators of any given monument belonged. As we cannot understand the historical

writings, and cannot rely upon the oral tradition handed down by the Spaniards, the Maya script is the only means of defining the extent of the district which was subject to the civilising influences of their culture in ancient times. In this connection the greatest importance attaches to the fact that the Maya peoples

The Maya Pictorial Decorations

had an extraordinary fancy for adorning their buildings, their sculptures, and even their earthenware, not only with pictorial decorations of more or less richness, but also with inscriptions of considerable length. We owe it to this fact that we can ascribe buildings which show unmistakable affinities with Maya architecture to their real founders, and, on the other hand, can attribute many a monument to the Maya which lay entirely outside of the dominions which they are known to have inhabited.

The number of the ascertained sites of the Maya civilisation, the ruins of which lie hidden in the impenetrable forests of Chiapas, Honduras, Yucatan, etc., continues to increase year by year; more abundant opportunities are thereby afforded us for investigating the life of this forgotten people. Now and again an unexpected discovery extends the known area of the Maya civilisation beyond its previous limits in one or another direction; but, upon the whole, the boundaries of this area are tolerably well settled. In the first place, the whole of the Yucatan peninsula belongs to it, with the numerous islands which lie along the coast and were taken over by the Maya, obviously with a view to civilisation.

On the north-west of Yucatan their district has not spread so far, and at most reached to the Isthmus of Tehuantepec. However, in this district, in Chiapas, on the banks of the Usumacinta, and in the low-lying valleys of its numerous tributaries, we must place not only the highest

The Home of Maya Civilisation

development of the Maya civilisation, but also its original home. Here lay and here still lie the famous ruined cities of Palenque, of Ocoingo, of Menché, and the recently discovered Piedras Negras group, all remarkable for the splendid richness of their artistic decorations and the extent of their inscriptions. Here, too, on internal evidence, must be placed the home of that most important and most beautiful among the few Maya manuscripts that

have been preserved for later generations, the Codex Dresdensis; the remaining two—the Codex Perezianus in Paris, and the Tro-Cortesianus in Madrid—are of later date and very probably of Yucatan origin.

The illustration on the preceding page throws an interesting light on the Maya inscriptions and pictorial decorations, which, as we have seen, were frequently of very considerable length. This reproduction of a page from the famous Maya MS. in the Royal Free Library at Dresden, shows a section of the so-called "tonalamatl," a sacred season of 260 days, constantly met with in manuscripts and employed for prophetic purposes. But while the drawings partly tell their own story, the writing cannot be deciphered, even the most skilled American antiquarians of the present day, as already stated, being unable to agree to any definite extent upon the system to which it should be ascribed.

On the south-west of Yucatan the Maya district spreads up into the Cordilleras; and though we cannot follow the traces of this nationality on to the Pacific seaboard in any direction, yet it was only a narrow strip of coast which they failed to bring under their influence, for the mountain range shows traces of their settlements up to and beyond its watershed. The southern boundary of the Maya district is perhaps as yet the most uncertain. On the Atlantic coast two of the most famous Maya ruins, Quirigua and Copan, are hidden by the valley walls of the Motagua in Guatemala and Honduras; and the whole of Guatemala up to the boundaries of the republic of San Salvador seems at one time to have been inhabited by people of the Maya race.

On the north the characteristic memorials of the Nahua element make a sharp division of areas possible; but on the south the style of the neighbouring peoples was of no definite character, and so it has not yet been settled whether coincidences and similarities in this district are due to the neighbouring influence of the Maya or to a real ethnological connection with them. Within these boundaries the area of Maya civilisation embraces an extent of about 7,000 square miles—that is, rather more than the kingdom of Prussia; in more than half of this, traces of an unusually large population are apparent.



REMARKABLE CIVILISATION OF A VANISHED RACE

THE LIFE AND CUSTOMS OF THE MAYA

WAS this district ever a united Maya kingdom? There is no difficulty in arriving at the assumption that it was. The half-mythological, half-historical traditions which have been transmitted to us in the dialects of Kakchiquel and the Maya of Yucatan mention a great kingdom on many occasions. Now it is the Nachan kingdom, the kingdom of the great snake, a mythological symbol which meets us over and over again in the whole district of Maya civilisation. In another legend it is the kingdom of Xibalbay, the kingdom of a mighty and powerful ruler from whom the heroes of the legend won their independence after much toil and struggle.

Historical coincidences have been observed in both these stories, and the capital of the Nachan kingdom has been identified with Palenque, that of the Xibalbay kingdom with the Zapotec Mitla. Even if these conjectures were justified, and they are still in dispute, it need not necessarily follow that these kingdoms had ever embraced the whole or even the greater part of the Maya district. In the disruption which is so prominent a feature in the ancient constitutional history of Central America, a power of very moderate dimensions according to modern ideas, proved a sufficient foundation for the legend of a mighty kingdom. The historical circumstances of later times, at any rate, afford no evidence in favour of a previous political confederacy of the little Maya principalities.

The Maya language, moreover, not only in recent times, but at the period of the Spanish conquest, was divided into a set of dialects sharply differentiated each from the rest. When the monks began to study individual dialects for purposes of communication, they recognised in them that relationship to a common source which

the natives themselves had totally forgotten. This fact obliges us to place the disruption of the Maya in a remote antiquity, and to suppose a long period of separate existence to the several communities wherein the different dialects were

What the Maya Monuments Reveal

formed. More careful examination of the Maya memorials has led to a similar result. The monuments of Copan in Honduras, of Palenque in Chiapas, of Chichen-Itza in North Yucatan, of Peten and Ticul on the boundary of the Guatemala tableland—in short, all the monuments that are scattered over the district of Maya civilisation—bear the marks of a uniform development of that civilisation.

Only a more particular study of their individualities has made it equally unmistakable that all these buildings do not belong to one and the same period, and that the coincidences they display are not such as to enable us to ascribe their foundation to any one people or to any one constitutional unity. Under these circumstances the fact becomes all the more important that it was not merely one member or a few individual members of this nation that rose to the perfection manifested in their ingenious system of writing, of arithmetical notation, and of chronology.

On the contrary, on the highlands of Guatemala, in Copan and Chama, in the lowlands of the Usumacinta, in the valley of the Motagua, in the Far East, in the island of Cozumel, all the peoples of Maya origin could record their traditions in the same script, and controlled the complicated calculation of their festivals by the same astronomical rules—rules that presuppose observation over a great lapse of time. In a word, the astonishing achievements of the Maya peoples in civilisation—

The District of Maya Civilisation

Similarity of the Maya Script

achievements absolutely unparalleled in the New World—must belong to an epoch previous to the period of disruption. Only one branch of the Maya people had no share in these achievements—the Huasteca, on the north coast of Mexico, who had been driven to the estuary of the Panuco River. This fact is important for the criticism of the legends of the Nahua migration. In historical times the Huasteca were divided from their southern kinsfolk by a wide district peopled generally by the Nahua, though these were divided into numerous small states.

Whether the Huasteca had migrated into the Nahua district, or whether immigrations of the Nahua had cut them off from their parent stem, the fact remains that

and from the pictorial decorations of their architecture. In no single district, with the exception of the Yucatan peninsula, has the attempt as yet been successful to trace a connection between the Maya states of the sixteenth century (the history of which can be retraced some ten generations, that is, two or three hundred years) and the states which centre round the great ruined sites. It is only during the last twenty years that these have been carefully investigated.

To-day nearly all these places lie far from the roads which the traffic of later times has opened up; they are hidden in the wild depths of the tropical forest, where vegetation springs up with such overpowering vigour that often a few years after an

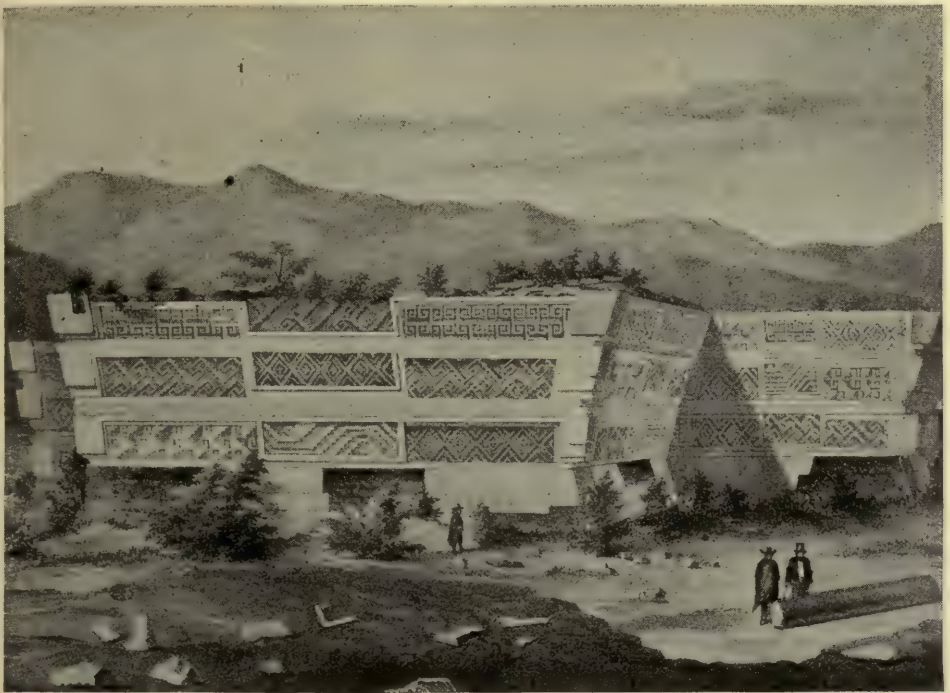


ZAPOTEC REMAINS AT MITLA: IDOLS TWO THOUSAND YEARS OLD

at one period the Maya and the Nahua must have found themselves in opposition, and this at a time when the Maya had not completed the most important part of their progress. Otherwise, either the Huasteca would have shared in the Maya civilisation, or else, isolated in the midst of Nahua peoples, they would not have retained their national peculiarities undisturbed. Such a case of arrest upon the lower planes of civilisation is only possible when the neighbouring elements are in a state of mutual repulsion.

Until the key to the inscriptions has been found, we can draw conclusions as to the circumstances and conditions of life among the peoples of antiquity only from the general character of the Maya cities

expedition has cut paths and made the ruins accessible the next expedition finds that the jungle has again reconquered the whole. Under these circumstances it is hopeless to try and infer the age of the ruins from that of the trees under which they are hidden; all the more so, as historical tradition tells of more than one ruined city that the Spaniards found hidden in tropical vegetation when they made their first discoveries in the sixteenth century. Even then the imposing erections with which the soil of Chiapas is thickly sown were, for the natives as well as for the Spaniards, merely the long-silent witnesses of a remote past to which there was attached neither the traditions of history nor the legends of romance. The very names of these



RUINS SHOWING THE FIRST DEPARTURE FROM THE VERTICAL ARCHITECTURE



REMAINS OF A ZAPOTEC FORTIFICATION ON A HIGH HILL NEAR MITLA

Recent excavations at Mitla have brought to light many extensive ruins of ancient palaces, tombs, and other edifices—relics of its pre-Columbian period—many of them displaying considerable architectural beauty.

SCENES AT MITLA, THE ANCIENT CAPITAL OF THE XIBALBAY KINGDOM

places had long been completely forgotten ; the appellations that later times have accepted have no original authority,

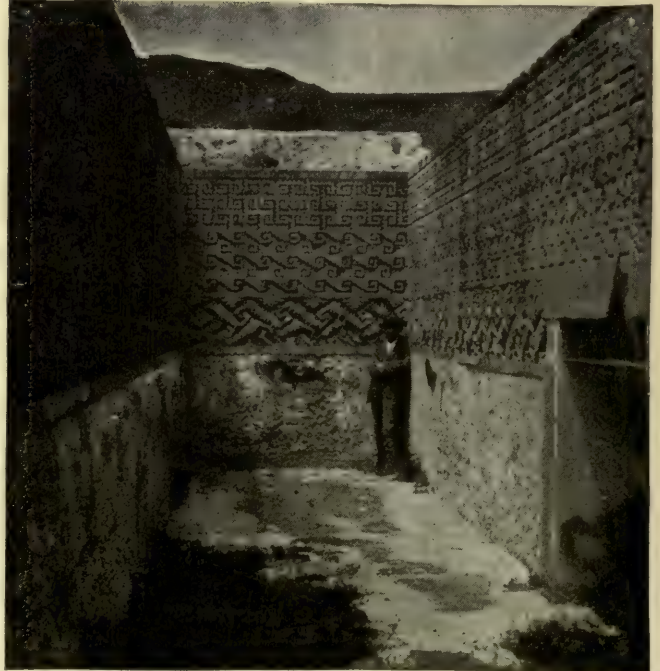
instance, the Mexican read as "Cinacatan," in his language, "the Town of the Bat" (probably a totemistic denomination of a

little Maya state that was still in existence in the time of Cortes) ; but the Maya vocalised the same concept as "Tzutuhil." Each of these names was equally employed and equally well understood in the one district as in the other—a proof of the intimate association of the Maya and Nahua peoples. Now, at the time of the discovery of America, the area of the oldest Maya civilisation had been already abandoned by the Maya; the Spaniards undertook the colonisation of the land under the guidance and with the help of the Nahua. Consequently, in the case of a district that for hundreds of years was the home of the highest Maya civilisation, and had never entirely fallen into the



THE HALL OF MONOLITH COLUMNS

but rest upon Spanish tradition or have been transmitted to us by the wild Indian tribes of the neighbourhood. A peculiar characteristic of the old Indian peoples has contributed not a little to this result. The names of their towns, of their persons, and even of their gods, were taken without exception from material objects ; hence they could easily be represented by hieroglyphs of a conventional and universally intelligible nature. Of this we have countless instances in the manuscripts of Nahuatlac origin. This mode of writing was intelligible over the limited region where it persisted, but its phonetic interpretation was by no means everywhere the same. For



Underwood

PREHISTORIC RUINS AT MITLA: HALL OF MOSAICS

THE CIVILISATION OF THE MAYA

hands of the Nahua, we find in our authorities only place-names of Nahua origin. Hence, the ruined places of Chiapas are designated without exception by Spanish and Nahuatlac names; yet these places show indisputable signs of their Maya occupation in the style of their pictorial decorations, and, above all, in the numerous inscriptions in the Maya character.

To judge from extent, from beauty, and from technical perfection, an important, if not the central, point of the civilisation of this people must have been situated on the eastern slope of the Cordilleras, in Chiapas. Separated by no great distance,

religious element must have been of transcendent importance; so much so that to some, at least, of the old Maya cities a government by the priestly caste has been attributed. The analogy of neighbouring conditions and the scanty counter statements of historical tradition do not confute the theory. The migration legends of the Central American peoples are of great importance; for the settlements, even of those peoples that had made a considerable advance in civilisation, were only of relative duration. In the legends we constantly meet with the story that the peoples, under the



MAYA COPY OF THE GREAT TEMPLE OF CHICHEN-ITZA IN NORTHERN YUCATAN

reaching from the foot of the mountain to the sea, the ruined sites remain of Ococingo, Palenque, Menché, and Piedras Negras. Each of these must once have formed a large town, a centre of religious and political life, round which a thick population clustered. To us there remains little save the sites of the temples and perhaps of one or two palaces. It is a characteristic peculiarity of all Central American civilisation to have practically no profane buildings to show, but a large number of religious erections of great extent and particular beauty. At once the conclusion offers itself that in the political life of the old Maya towns the

guidance of their national god, wandered about until the god, speaking himself or through one of his servants, ordered the people to settle definitely on a certain spot and to build him a dwelling-place.

This merely means that the priests were the ruling class, as being the servants and representatives of the god-head; the fact is confirmed by our own historical knowledge of peoples who were ruled by religious and not by warrior leaders. We consider the almost exclusive preponderance of religious buildings in Palenque, in Menché, and other ruined places; we observe the pictorial decorations remaining in these temples, which

we find to be almost entirely composed of divinities and priests in nearly every case with the insignia of temporal dominion—the sceptre and a peculiar head-dress of richest featherwork; and hence we conclude that the same conditions must have prevailed to an unlimited extent in these old Maya towns. Certainly, centres of political power might have existed elsewhere and have left behind them fewer and less-enduring memorials. We might be led to this conclusion by the analogy of the neighbouring Nahua district, where Teotihuacan and Cholula were recognised centres of

religious life and were adorned with greater buildings than many a royal capital, without being in any unusually close connection with the political life of those districts. But the old Maya towns, with the extensive precincts of their temples, are very numerous, and are not very widely separated; hence it is impossible to find room either near or between them for the existence of such independent political centres as would form the natural

counterpoise to this high development of the priestly forces. One, at least, of the ruined cities, Palenque, bears traces within and around itself which admit the possibility of other than sacred conceptions attaching to the ground.

Within the limits of the ruins are to be found constructions for bringing water and serving it throughout the district which are too extensive to have been connected with the temple buildings alone. The remains of an ancient Indian town are not great, even though the town was of considerable extent and population. The common folk were occupied by their agricultural labours at a distance from

the town for most of the year. The monuments themselves show us how thorough and extensive ancient Maya agriculture was; many of the elements current in their hieroglyphic script were borrowed from agricultural implements; in their religion the divinities of fruitfulness played a most important part and are adorned with symbols relating to agriculture.

The reports of the Spaniards further confirm the fact: in the districts inhabited at their time they found everywhere a dense population supporting itself by careful tilling of the soil. As winter caused but a short interruption of agricultural opera-

tions, the population had no permanent habitations in the immediate neighbourhood of the temples, their houses for their daily needs being placed in the middle of their fields. Their frail dwellings, built of wood and wattlework, straw and matting, offered no resistance to the march of time, and left no traces of their ruin which could have survived the lapse of centuries. On the environs of Palenque, in the depths of that forest which has



THE TEMPLE OF THE SUN AT PALENQUE.

The worship of the sun occupied a foremost place in the Maya religious observances, this illustration showing a temple erected to that deity.

covered the town more or less since historical times, there are, it is true, concealed memorials of antiquity, isolated and at a distance from the town; probably, therefore, when Palenque was a flourishing town, its neighbourhood was also inhabited by an industrious agricultural population. We know, from the figures which have been transmitted to us of the state of things in Mexico-Tenochtitlan, what large crowds of people were occupied in the temple services of the Central American peoples. So, as the temples in each of the old Maya cities are always numerous and often of considerable extent, we have in this fact an exact correspondence with the traditions.



A VIEW OF THE OUTER WESTERN FACADE OF THE PALACE



EASTERN FACADE OF THE INNER WING OF THE PALACE

REMAINS OF THE ANCIENT MAYA PALACE AT PALENQUE IN MEXICO

At the same time the extent and importance of the temples are evidence for the strong powers of the ruling priestly castes.

The Maya buildings, which we must consider, without exception, as monumental buildings in our sense of the word, were almost always erected upon a foundation in the form of a hill, displaying

The Maya Style of Architecture many resemblances to the mounds of the North American Indians. Here and there, where the ground was favourable, natural hills were employed for this object, and cut down to the size of the designed erection. But generally the whole mound or terrace was artificially constructed of boulders, rubble, gravel, or earth, according to the nature of the material at hand.

In countless cases these mounds, known as "ku" in the Maya tongue, are all that remain to tell of an ancient building. In such cases we must suppose that the mound was crowned by an open altar, or a construction of some perishable material, of which all traces have disappeared. Kus without buildings upon them are found in Chiapas only in connection with more permanent erections; but in Yucatan, where the Maya architecture can be traced in many other directions, there stand, or stood, unnumbered kus in complete isolation, and these in the later Spanish period often formed the only memorials of the ancient Indian settlements. All the larger temple sites of the Maya show a number of earth terraces; these were arranged in an exactly parallel order, and formed the four sides of a lower court in the midst.

But in the case of such groups of mounds the sides are usually covered with flagstones or with smooth plaster spread over them; and the terraces almost invariably support buildings which may be of considerable size. At the eastern foot of the Cordilleras, both in Chiapas and on the boundaries of Honduras, Nature provided the

Maya Peoples Ignorant of the Arch Maya with a hard sandstone of an argillaceous kind. This was an ideal material for their purposes. - It could be quarried in large blocks without trouble; being only moderately heavy, its transport offered no insurmountable difficulties, and it was capable of being worked even with their inadequate instruments. For the Maya, in spite of their artistic cleverness, apparently made no use of metal tools in their work, although they seem to have

had some knowledge of copper work for decorative productions. Their ignorance of the arch is a fact of importance for the Maya architecture. They overcame the difficulty by making each new course overhang the one beneath it until the opening became small enough to be closed by a single slab. However, this kind of arch could cover only a moderate breadth, could hardly be built firmly enough to support a second building, and obliged the construction of the roof to be extremely massive. The consequence was that the fore-wall of the building that composed the roof provided a surface often more than half the size of the storey beneath it.

The Maya architects were in the habit of using this surface for ornamental decoration, and it became so important an architectural feature that the monuments of the highest development often retain it without the massive roofing behind, merely as an isolated ornament to finish off the building. A facade of this kind, which really contained but one floor of rooms, often produced the appearance of a three-storied building. The Maya could only place

Buildings Like Terraced Pyramids one storey upon another in tower-shaped buildings of considerable extent; on the other hand, they have built many temples in another style of two or more storeys. This was done in pyramidal form. The foundation upon which they were raised gave all the Maya buildings the appearance of a terraced pyramid. The building did not stand exactly upon the edges of the artificial mound; an open space ran around every side of it. If a second storey was to be raised, it was only necessary to increase the height of the mound at the back of the building until it was upon a level with the roof. This roof then formed an open space before the door, and in the centre of the mound thus raised a second storey could be erected.

Entrance to this could be gained either from the sides of the mound which were not built upon, or by a stairway against one of the sides of the building. The Maya architects were invariably obliged to construct buildings of considerable breadth, because bold and lofty erections were unattainable with the means at their disposal. The heaviness of the broad and massive roof is dispelled only by the rich ornamental design of the sides and the facade. The boldness of design and the scrupulous finish of detail are extraordinary.

THE CIVILISATION OF THE MAYA

The Maya buildings entirely exclude the supposition that they were formed by merely putting together any material at hand. They are, without exception, the result of uniform design, and their arrangement most certainly implies previous survey and full calculation. The sculptures are even stronger evidence for this fact; they often rise a considerable height from the ground, and their design occupies many yards of wall space. This is especially the case with the stone carvings. It is wholly inconceivable that these masses of stonework should have been

and in Yucatan (especially Uxmal and Chichen-Itza). But the sculptured figures in each of these several districts have such strongly marked characteristics that they require separate description. In the ruined cities of Chiapas, the oldest district of Maya civilisation, the bas-relief is the prevailing feature of their sculpture. At one place it is a form of relief in clay or stucco, a development of the potter's art; instances are the altar slabs of Palenque and a long row of interesting examples. Elsewhere it is relief in stone, requiring far greater artistic skill. For instance, the



THE IMPOSING REMAINS OF AN AZTEC TEMPLE IN YUCATAN

begun only when the blocks had been placed in position; on the contrary, it is plain from the manner of their insertion that they were previously worked apart. This implies a previous capability for planning and disposing ornamental designs which is possible only to the highest powers of the surveyor and calculator.

All these architectural peculiarities are to be found, though with certain local differences, among all those Maya races which have left buildings of any importance behind them. They are to be found not only in the ruins of Chiapas, but also in Guatemala (Tikal), in Honduras (Copan),

famous altar-pieces of Palenque, and the splendid slab from Menché-Tenamit. If we leave out of sight the fundamental peculiarities of style, the skill of the Maya in each of these materials must excite our highest admiration, both for the designs conceived and for the technical perfection of execution. With them are to be ranked by right of birth the artists in the neighbouring district, forming the modern republic of Guatemala.

The true Guatemala highland need not be considered with reference to the most ancient Maya civilisation. At the beginning of the sixteenth century in that district

the Spaniards certainly met with the independent Maya states, Quiché, Kakchiquel, and Tzutuhil. But there is hardly a doubt that these states first came into existence in later centuries. On the other hand, the lowland on the east of Guatemala, on the borders of Yucatan, was in the occupation of the Maya at the height of their civilisation. The states of Tikal and Peten certainly belong to a far earlier period of development than do Utatlan, Iximché, and Cinacatan, the capitals of the three principalities previously named. The highly carved wood panels which have travelled from the ruins of Tikal to the museum of Basel, if allowance be made for difference of material, must certainly, by their design and execution, be placed in the same category as the Chiapas memorials.

**The Height
of Maya
Civilisation**

Unless we are to conceive entire independence for each separate Maya state, the towns of Chiapas and those of Lower Guatemala must have been more closely connected with each other than they were with the rest of the Maya district. At any rate, in this district remains of old Maya roads can be traced here and there, whereas such roads are rarer towards the south and reappear in any number only around a central point in Yucatan.

The most southerly ruined sites, Quirigua and Copan on the Honduras boundary with their numerous characteristics, form another district of civilisation still wider in extent. Quirigua, on account of the stiffness and clumsiness of its artistic figures, is considered one of the oldest states of the Maya civilisation. It may perhaps be older than Copan, which was more advanced and which probably contained the germs of an early destruction; but it is certainly of later date than the northern Maya settlements, for its art is more advanced than the art of the north was, and has closer affinities with the art of Copan. With the exception of two efforts in Yucatan, Quirigua and Copan are the only states which rose to the full portrayal of the human form; real statues there are certainly none, but we find caryatids and memorial pillars of human shape. These unmistakably represented particular individual personalities, though trammelled by symbolical and stereotyped accessories. Each of these stelæ is covered with extensive inscriptions; but though these cannot be deciphered as a whole,

**Statues and
their
Inscriptions**

their value is manifest from the fact that they have already made us acquainted with seven dates which are calculated from the fixed point of time before referred to, 3,750 years before the erection of the oldest of these pillars. The dates upon these seven monuments are important, inasmuch as the respective ages of the pillars give us a minimum length of time for the Copan civilisation which erected them.

The difference between the earliest and the latest date amounts to 108 years; we may therefore conclude that the destruction and fall of Copan formed the conclusion of this period; for it is improbable, given the continuance of certain conditions and the absence of any counteracting cause, that the established custom of erecting portrait memorials should have been dropped. This train of argument certainly does not lead to much; the time and circumstances which brought about the fall of Copan are as little known to us as are the same circumstances in the case of the other Maya states. When the Spaniards entered the continent, Copan was already in ruins, a mystery overgrown

by the primeval forest. So entirely had it fallen into oblivion that Cortes with his band was able to march past it at the distance of but a few miles, while his Indian guides, who must have informed him of all the wonders of the country, never mentioned it even once.

**Variety of
Maya
Divinities**

As almost all the monumental buildings in the Maya district with which we are acquainted consist of temples, we see that religion must have played a most important part in the public life of the ancient Maya. The Maya possessed a large number of different divinities, without reckoning the little fetishes, or household gods which every house possessed, and which were known here, as in the Antilles, by the name of "zemes." Their polytheism was, however, of a limited character compared with that of other peoples; this is the more likely, owing to the probability that many of the different names of the gods which have come down to us were current among different Maya races to denote similar conceptions.

Moreover, the varied representations of the gods in the monuments and in manuscripts were certainly to some extent only different forms of one and the same divine power. The missionaries were able to describe this consciousness of an



MAYA HIGH-PRIEST SACRIFICING TO THE GOD KUKULKAN

This illustration from the bas-relief in stone from Menché-Tenanit, now in the British Museum, shows the god habited in the royal insignia, the sceptre and the rich feather dress, while before him kneels the high-priest in the act of sacrifice, the rich clothing and the feather head-dress denoting his office. The sacrifice consists in tearing the tongue with the thorns of the rope the priest holds in his hands, and allowing the blood to drop into the sacrificial vessel.

underlying unity in the case of the god Hunabku, who was invisible and supreme ; naturally their zealous orthodoxy saw here some fragmentary knowledge of the one God.

Hunabku does not appear very prominently in the Maya worship or mythology ; of this the sun is undoubtedly the central point. Kukulkan and Gukumatz—probably in his essence Itzamna also

The Place of the Sun in Worship—are only variant names, originating in difference of race, for the power of the sun that

warms, lights, and pours blessings upon the earth. As the sun rises in the east out of the sea, so the corresponding divinity of the traditions comes over the water from the east to the Maya, and is the bringer of all good things, of all blessings to body and soul, of fruitfulness and learning. In the last character the divinity is fully incarnated. He appears as an aged greybeard in white flowing robes ; as Votan he divides the land among the peoples and gives the settlements their names ; as Kabil, the "Red Hand," he discovers writing, teaches the art of building, and arranges the marvellous perfection of the calendar. This part of the myth has undoubtedly a historical connection with the sun-myth, the real centre of all these religious

conceptions, and is further evidence of the powers of the priesthood and of the fact that their influence was exercised to advance the progress of civilisation. Fully realistic is a conception of that particular deity which is represented in the Maya art by the widely prevailing symbol of the feathered snake. This is also a

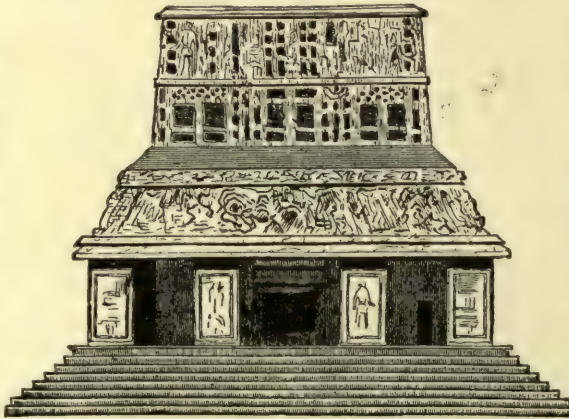
branch of the sun-worship. In the tropical districts for a great part of the year the sun each day, at noon, draws up the clouds around himself ; hence, with lightning and thunder, the symbols of power, comes down the fruitful rain in thunderstorms upon the thirsty land.

Thus the feathered snake, perhaps even a symbol of the thunder, appears among the Maya, on the highland of Central America, among the Pueblo Indians, and also among some Indian races of the North American lowland. It represents the warm, fruitful power of the heavens, which is invariably personified in the chief luminary, the sun. The symbols of the snake and of Quetzal, the sacred bird with highly coloured plumage are attributes of more than one Maya divinity.

Under different shapes in the Tzendal district, in Yucatan to a large extent, and particularly in Chichen-Itza, they have so coloured the religious and the artistic conceptions of the Maya that we meet with traces of this symbolism in almost

Good and Bad Gods every monument and every decoration. The dualism of the Maya Olympus also originates in a mythological interpretation of natural phenomena. The representatives of the sun—light and life—are opposed to those of the night—darkness and death ; both have nearly equal powers and are in continual conflict for the lordship of the earth and of mankind. Moreover, the good gods have been obliged to abandon man after expending all their benefits upon him, and

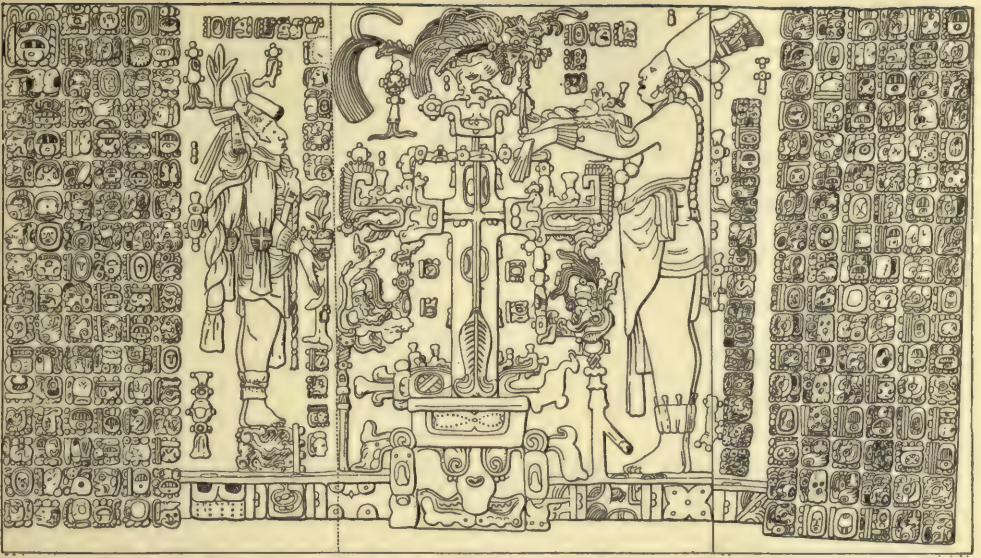
have made him promise of a future return, to support him in the struggle, and to assure him of victory at the last. Around these central mythological conceptions, which in different forms are practically common property among most early peoples, are grouped, in the case of the Maya, a large number of individual characteristics, each diversely developed. Not only was human life subject to the power of the gods in a large and general way, since the gods had created and formed it, but also religion—or, to be more exact, the Maya priesthood—had contrived a special system whereby man's life was



MAYA TEMPLE OF THE CROSS

Originally an oratory, this building, the work of early Americans, is of very remote antiquity. The cross had a symbolical meaning among the ancient Maya other than as an emblem of Christianity.

teristics, each diversely developed. Not only was human life subject to the power of the gods in a large and general way, since the gods had created and formed it, but also religion—or, to be more exact, the Maya priesthood—had contrived a special system whereby man's life was



RELIGIOUS CUSTOMS OF THE MAYA: THE GROUP OF THE CROSS

This picture represents a religious custom obtaining among the Maya peoples, who inhabited districts of Central America in the pre-Columbian days. To avert supposed calamities and on religious festivals it was usual to sacrifice newly-born children and offer their bodies to the gods. Such an offering the priest on the right is holding in his hands. A remarkable fact concerning this tablet is that it was executed with the aid of blunt instruments of flint.

ostensibly under the permanent influence of the gods, even in the most unimportant trifles. Upon this subject the quarters of the heavens and the constellations were of decisive importance; careful and keen observation, lasting apparently over a great period of time, had put the Maya priesthood in possession of an astronomical knowledge to which no other people upon a corresponding plane of civilisation has ever attained.

Their calendar still bears traces of its development; in earlier times it consisted of eighteen months of twenty days each, as with many other American peoples. At the time of the discovery of America the Maya knew how to correct the solar year by means of five intercalary days, a piece of knowledge which the Nahua peoples also possessed; but they were also aware that this did not correspond with the real length of the solar year, and corrected the error with greater accuracy than the Old World had done previous to Gregory's alteration of the Western calendar. Herein they were superior to the Spaniards, who destroyed their civilisation without suspecting this fact. This carefully corrected solar year was then considered in relation to all other possible annual calculations, and upon it the priestly caste established a number

of astronomical laws more carefully worked out than in any other nation. Of nearly equal, if not of even greater, importance to the solar year was the ritual year of twenty weeks with thirteen days each; each division of it belonged to a particular divinity. Here the four quarters of the heavens played an important part, since to each of them a quarter of the ritual year belonged. But in all this diversity the consciousness of a higher unity clearly existed; evidence for this is the special symbol of the four quarters of the heaven—the cross—which the Spaniards were highly astonished to find everywhere in the Maya temples, as an object of particular veneration. Moreover, an influence upon the motions of the earth was certainly attributed to the morning and evening stars and to the Pleiades. Perhaps also the periods of revolution for Venus, Mercury, and Mars were approximately known and employed in calculation.

The knowledge of these minute astronomical calculations was the exclusive possession of the highest priesthood, though at the same time they exercised a certain influence upon the whole national life. Upon these calculations the priests arranged the worship of the gods. The Maya worship is sharply divided from that of the Nahua, and in particular from the bloody idol-worship of the Aztecs, which

**Astronomical
Laws known
to the Maya**

has been erroneously considered as almost the typical form of Central American worship. However, human sacrifice does not seem to have been entirely excluded from the Maya religion. But in earlier times, before communication with the

**Cannibalism
Unknown
to the Maya**

Nahua peoples and their lower forms of civilisation had exercised a deteriorating influence upon the Maya culture, human sacrifice was practised most rarely, and the Maya knew nothing of the cannibalism which, even among the Aztecs, accompanied these sacrifices. It was only on the high festival, when, at the outset of a new year, the Maya kindled the fire anew to symbolise the commencement of a period, that a human victim was offered to the gods. The Maya were certainly fully aware of the high value of blood as a sacrifice; only the power of atonement was not inherent in the blood of a slaughtered victim, but in that of a living man.

The blood was shed in honour of the god, with fasting and discipline, by tearing the tongue or some other sensitive portion of the body with thorns or other instruments of torture. Yet this happened only upon high occasions. The usual offerings were of a wholly inoffensive kind, and consisted of the first-fruits of the huntsman's spoil or of the produce of the ground. The most widely spread of all forms of offering was the censuring with burning copal resin, a religious use which continued to the time of Christianity, and, in

individual cases, until recently; upon the discovery of outlying Maya ruins, traces of such incense offerings of quite recent time have been found. Peacefully, with no shedding of blood, the life of this people passed by; under the unlimited but mildly exercised administration of a priestly aristocracy they passed a life that was laborious but free from care. Upon their memorials, weapons of war appear only as attributes of the gods.

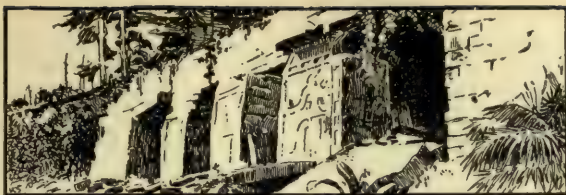
Amid the blessings of prosperity and advancing civilisation they came to know the dark side of life. Long and careful cultivation of the fruitful tropic soil had given them a kingdom which they increased by an extensive trade. It may have been a merchant ship from a harbour in the Maya district that met with Columbus and his comrades upon their fourth voyage over the Atlantic between Jamaica and the mainland; its sails, its well-clothed crew, and its cargo may have pointed to the existence of a higher civilisation behind the district of the Antilles and the naked savages who inhabited it.

**Prosperity
Fatal to
the Nation**

But prosperity was fatal to the nation. Phallic worship, reverence to a divinity of unnatural lust, are signs of moral decay among the ruling classes of this people; and so it is intelligible that they went down before an external shock, though it was the shock of an enemy which was by no means of overpowering strength.



STATUE OF TLALOC, THE GOD OF RAIN, FOUND AT CHICHEN-ITZA



END OF THE MAYA CIVILISATION AND THE COMING OF THE SPANIARDS

IT was about the ninth century of our era—perhaps a century or two earlier—that the peace of the Maya states of Chiapas and Tabasco was broken by the invasion of the Nahua peoples. A manuscript of Kuikatec origin informs us of a wave of conquest which passed from the south-west of Central America to the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, then turned towards the east, troubled some part of Guatemala, and finally penetrated to the Acalan district, directly bordering on the Yucatan peninsula. The enemy was then situated in the rear of that group of states to which Palenque, Menché, and other centres of Maya civilisation belonged.

The reason that we cannot recognise these ancient names in the lists of the Kuikatec conquest is, perhaps, simply because the documents have not been deciphered. At any rate, invading hordes of the kind did not spare the Maya district, which was

Invasion of the Nahua Peoples

easy of access and possessed all the allurements of a high civilisation. It is doubtful whether hard fighting took place or not between the unwarlike Maya and the fierce, invading Nahua. The ruins of Chiapas and Tabasco show scarce a trace of wilful destruction such as is unmistakable in the case of Mayapan (Yucatan). It was far less difficult for this people to give up their wonted habitations than it would have been for a more civilised race. It was only for their gods that they built permanent edifices; they were themselves satisfied with frail thatched huts in which they slung their hammocks, almost their only furniture, for the night.

It is just possible that Copan, with its one century of flourishing civilisation, was only a temporary halting-place of the Maya peoples, who had abandoned their more northerly settlements in the Usumacinta lowland before the invasion of the advance guard of the Nahuatlac migration. If this be the case, then there also they were left only a few generations

in peace. The later devastation of this district by numerous and compact bodies of Nahua races would show that the conquerors followed later the tracks of their flying adversaries, and there also put an end to their peaceful existence. The

Shattering the Old Maya Civilisation

final result, however, of the struggle between these two different races, a struggle which apparently lasted a considerable time, was to shatter the old Maya civilisation and to divide the races belonging to it into two essentially distinct groups, the Maya people of Yucatan and those of the Guatemala branch.

Upon their invasion the Maya found Yucatan still uninhabited, whether this invasion followed upon their flight before the Nahua peoples or was an event of earlier times. Probably Yucatan offered no great or immediate attractions to them. Thanks to its position between two seas, the climate of the peninsula was healthy; the sea-breezes also brought moisture sufficient for the needs of a luxuriant vegetation. But running water—that indispensable condition of a permanent settlement—is scarce to be found on the whole peninsula.

A search for the precious liquid in subterranean caverns, the collecting of it in reservoirs, and the transport of it often to the height of three or four hundred feet up steps and ladders, is an undertaking not lightly entered upon by any people that can find more suitable ground at its disposition. Undoubtedly, Yucatan was first settled by the Maya far later than

What the Excavations Reveal

Chiapas or Tabasco. All the remains that have been brought to light by the manifold excavations, even those from the lowest strata, point to the highly advanced civilisation of the inhabitants; traces of a gradual development of this civilisation there are none. The immigrating people must therefore have gained their culture elsewhere, as is demonstrable in the case

of the Maya in the neighbouring districts farther west. In Yucatan, also, a considerable portion of the civilised districts was in ruins at the time of the Spanish invasion;

Features of the Ancient Maya Art

but other towns and temples, which fully correspond in character with those destroyed, were then in full perfection.

And tradition was certainly able to give a more or less connected account of the cities that had been abandoned and destroyed. The Yucatan buildings display an art of an undoubtedly late period compared

with the art of the more westerly states; the execution is not so careful, and there is a certain admixture of foreign elements. In place of the simple design of the old monumental buildings, where the sole decorations were the carved slabs and their accompanying inscriptions, we have here, partly resulting from the nature of the material employed, an excess of ornamental detail, a wilfully exaggerated symbolism, the existence of which is far more intelligible in the case of an older people than it is in a nation advancing by the

strength of youth. The lavish employment of stereotyped forms leaves but meagre space for inscriptions, so that this valuable adjunct of the ancient Maya art is here almost entirely wanting.

In the sculpture and wall paintings the influence of elements of Nahuatl origin is unmistakable; this brings the foundation of the Yucatan ruins nearer to the time when the two races came in contact. The calendar of the Yucatan Maya also shows traces of a later origin, and diverges

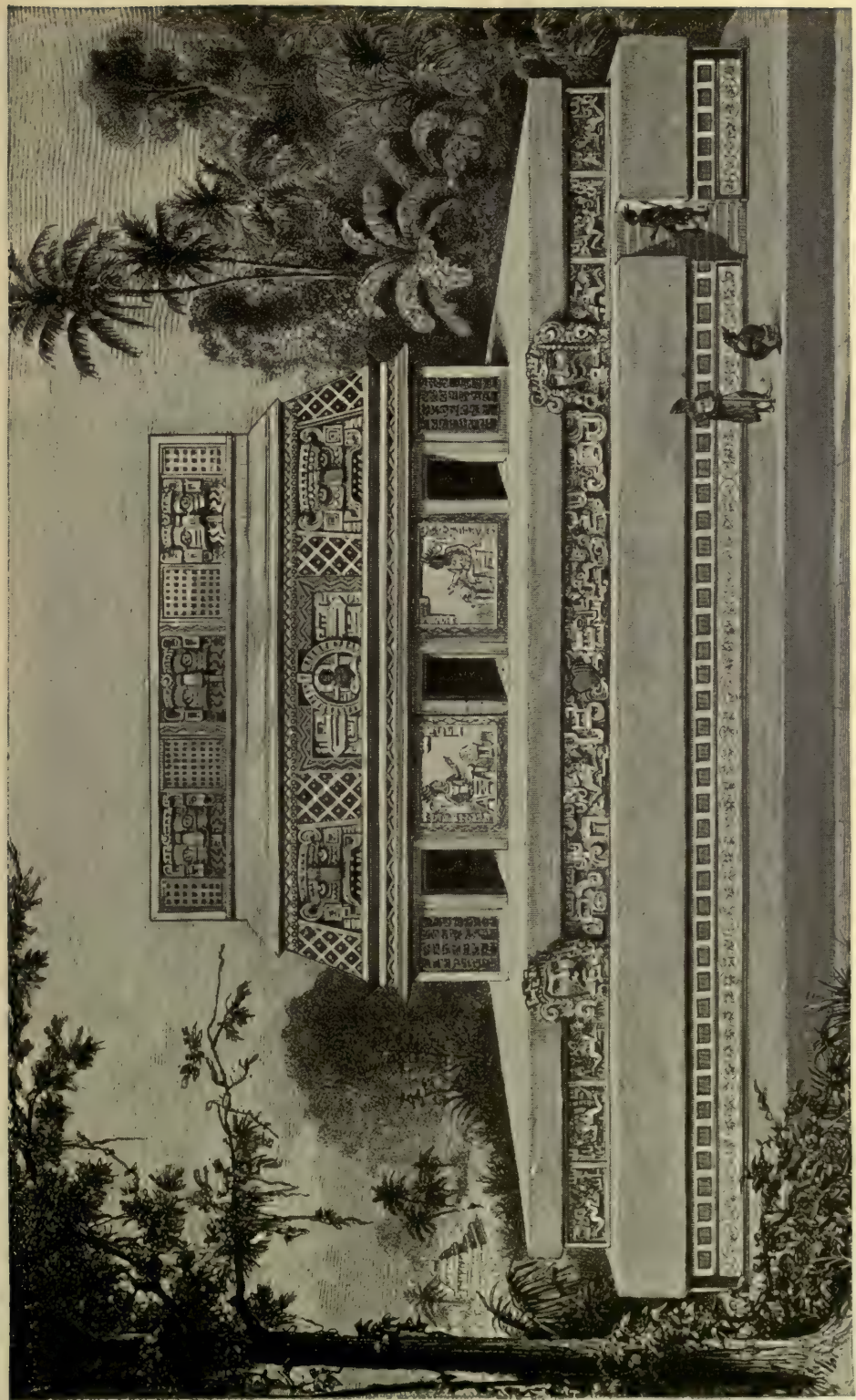
in many points from that of the Maya race of Chiapas. These differences have a particular importance, as they show the Yucatan people in concord with the Nahuatl, who certainly developed their civilisation later, and in divergence from their own original race. Tradition also—though often, after the manner of tradition, returning upon the creation of all things—does give grounds for that supposition that the occupation of Yucatan was the result, in the first instance, of the collapse of the old Maya civilisation.



GIGANTIC MAYA SCULPTURE AT ITZAMAL IN MEXICO

Yucatan appears to have been originally divided into a number of small individual states, each with its own separate traditions; consequently the history of the peninsula contains a large number of different traditions which cannot be traced to a common source, and do not show sufficient points of contact among themselves to enable us to construct a general history of the Maya race. We may, however, conclude that the emigrations and the settlements in Yucatan were not the result of one uniform leadership, but that separate

little bands, independent of one another, had fled beyond the thick woods that bound Yucatan. Individuals among these groups retained the old institutions under which they had seen happier times in their more western home. The god Itzamna was named as the founder and the first ruler of the sacred town Itzamal. Similarly Kukulcan, who was certainly only the incarnation of a similar group of ideas, is said to have been the first king of Mayapan to have carried on for many



RESTORATION OF THE MAYA TEMPLE OF KAB-UL AT THE SACRED TOWN OF ITZAMAL IN MEXICO
 On a pyramid to the east of Itzamal rose a temple dedicated to Izamat-ul, Izamna, or Zamna, the great founder of the ancient Maya empire, "To him were brought," says one historian, "the sick, the halt, and the dead, and he healed and restored them all to life by the touch of his hand," hence the appellation Kab-ul, the Miraculous Hand, applied to him.

years a rule of peace and prosperity, and to have been the origin of the princely house of the Cocomes. This means that the bands of Maya who chose Itzamal and Mayapan for their new abode were still under the government of their old priestly caste. On the analogy of Mexico we may conclude that these priests had marched at

The Sacred Town of Itzamal the head of the emigrants with the holy images of the gods, and had finally given them commands, presumed to be from heaven, for the colonisation and the building of the new towns. In Itzamal the priestly caste seems to have been pre-eminent until the town was absorbed in the neighbouring states, which were rapidly extending under a secular rule. Mayapan in the course of time took a predominating position among these. The fact, however, that the race of kings in that town traced their origin from Kukulcan himself is a proof that this royal house either owed its origin to a secularisation of its priestly rulers, or, at any rate, was founded with the help and approval of the priesthood of their national god.

Circumstances seem to have been somewhat different, even from the beginning, with those bands of the Maya who were known as Itzaes, and who founded and gave its title to the town of Chichen-Itza. In this case, even at the outset of their emigrations, a secular government appeared in place of their priestly leadership; for although the Tutul Xius are occasionally mentioned as holy men, they appear everywhere as a family of warriors and princes. Their traditions most distinctly point to their origin from the Maya states of the west; the land of Nonoual is particularly mentioned as a starting-point of their migrations; that is, the Nonohualco of the Nahuatl, the coastline of Tabasco. Starting at that point, they arrived, after long wanderings, at Chacnouitlan, the most southerly part of

Settlements of the Maya Peoples Yucatan, and they founded their first important town in Ziyan Caan on the lake which was afterwards called Bacalar.

In later times, as also appears in the annals of the Tutul Xius, the historical interests of Yucatan gravitated to the north of the peninsula; only on the lake Bacalar the Spaniards, under Montejo, met with a numerous Maya population in several extensive towns. For something like sixty years the rulership of the Tutul Xius lasted

in Ziyan Caan; then they also marched northward and eventually chose Chichen-Itza for their residence. Chichen-Itza is a town which has played a considerable part among the sacred places of Yucatan, a part resembling that of Teotihuacan in Anahuac; its fortunes had no lasting connection with the race of the Tutul Xius which had founded it.

In the meantime, the territorial principalities in the whole neighbourhood had been greatly strengthened, and their conflicting interests brought war and destruction upon the rising towns. It seems to have been the Cocomes, the rulers of Mayapan, who overthrew the throne of the Tutul Xius in Chichen-Itza after a government of 120 years; the town itself they made loosely dependent upon their own state, but the governors and their followers were obliged to start upon a fresh emigration. According to these traditions, Yucatan owes to this same race of princes another of its noblest towns and the rich artistic decorations with which it is adorned. At any rate, the Tutul Xius fled in a slanting direction across the whole peninsula as far as the northern coast, and

Nahuatlac Soldiers in Yucatan Wars settled in Champoton, where they are said to have ruled for more than 250 years. This fact is confirmed by the extensive burial-grounds of a Maya people which have been discovered on the little islands which lie opposite to the town of Champoton, or Potonchan, known later as a site of Nahuatlac population.

Apparently it was here that the Maya people who were subjects of the Tutul Xius entered into relations with the Nahuatl people, who had gained accessions of strength in the meantime. In the fourteenth century troops of Nahuatlac soldiers played an important part in the internal wars of Yucatan; and that it was not, as tradition relates, only the Cocomes of Mayapan who availed themselves of the services of these strangers is proved by the artistic style of the productions with which we meet even in the territory of the enemies of the Cocomes, especially in Chichen-Itza; here chiefs and warriors are repeatedly immortalised in an art the style of which betrays its affinity to the pictorial art of the Aztec manuscripts at the very first glance.

Such confederations as these enabled the Tutul Xius to extend their rulership from Champoton toward the north and east. They entered into treaties of peace

with the princes of Mayapan; and families of ruling princes again held the sceptre in Itzamal and Chichen-Itza. At this time the Tutul Xius changed their residence from Champoton to Uxmal (pronounced Ushmal). Their splendid state buildings in that district are sure evidence of a long period of peace, which they utilised to advance further their civilisation.

The different little states were under a rulership that was at least mild, but forced them to keep peace with one another; the artistic energy resulting from this peace expended itself in the countless monumental ruins with which we meet upon the soil of Yucatan. It was in this period, too, that the country was opened up, as was formerly the district between Palenque and its neighbouring towns, by the extensive and carefully made system of high-roads, remains of which have been found in the most widely separated places.

Religious purposes were the chief object of this work. According to the traditions, the roads led from the chief temple of Chichen-Itza and Itzamal out into the country in all directions, as far and wide as people prayed and made pilgrimages to

Chief of the Maya Deities

Kukulcan, the feathered snake, unmistakably the chief among the Maya deities of later times.

Chichen-Itza was specially connected with Cozumel, an island town not far from the eastern coast, which seems to have formed a wide circle of temples in the whole of its extent; it was here that the Spaniards first found the cross, the symbol of the god who ruled the four quarters of the heaven.

The Indian summer of the Maya civilisation was not fated to last long in Yucatan. The yoke of the Cocomes was heavy upon land and people. At the beginning of their rule, in order the better to secure their position, they had created an aristocracy which was obliged to give personal service to the government; for this, however, they were recompensed by rich grants of land and people, which they ruled—or, more exactly, plundered—through their representatives. The result was that the Cocomes introduced, probably in imitation of Nahuatlac predecessors, the institution of slavery, which had hitherto been unknown to the Maya. They based their rights on the principle of conquest. The state of Mayapan owed a considerable portion of its extent to the sternness of this rule; in this way Chichen-Itza became

tributary to the government of Mayapan. The iron hand of government growing heavier and heavier may very well, in the course of time, have brought it about that the position of the common people, who were subject to the tributary caciques, degenerated into a kind of subjection not very different from slavery. Moreover, the

Revolts Against the Cocomes

ruling classes abandoned themselves to the unlimited enjoyment of life; even the legends of the founding of their state speak of acts of dreadful immorality. The result was that the rulers did not feel their position secure, though they were situated in the midst of a nobility bound to themselves by common interests.

After the manner of tyrants, they thought they would find their surest protection in a foreign bodyguard, and they took warriors of the Nahua race from the district of Tabasco into their service. Even with this help they were not entirely successful in suppressing manifestations of dissatisfaction. One of the first to revolt against the tyranny of the Cocomes was the prince of Uxmal, but the fortune of war decided against him, and factions which broke out in Uxmal itself resulted in the abandonment of the royal town by its inhabitants, though not in its destruction. The remainder of the Tutul Xius were again obliged to retreat, and founded a new principality in Mani, which, however, never attained the splendour and importance of the imperial towns of Chichen-Itza and Uxmal.

The rising of the Tutul Xius had, however, set the example of revolt, and soon found imitators among the petty kings who were hard pressed by the Cocomes, though not so hard as had been the aristocracy of Mayapan. The next to refuse the respect he owed to the tyrant of Mayapan was the prince of Chichen-Itza. But he also was brought to punishment. A man of extraordinary energy sat upon the throne of the Cocomes. Hunac Eel was certainly an even harsher tyrant than his predecessors had been, but he was also a far-seeing politician. He knew very well that he could not rely upon the fidelity and dependence of his subjects; therefore he sought protection for his rule outside of his kingdom. The chronicles speak of a treaty which Hunac Eel had made with the governors of the kings of Mexico in Tabasco and Xicalango; this is certainly

Hunac Eel the Tyrant of Mayapan

an anachronism, for at the time when Hunac Eel was king of Mayapan the Aztec rulers of Mexico-Tenochtitlan were fighting to win their own independence from the Tecpanec kings of Azcaputzalco.

But the fact is certainly well attested that Hunac Eel entered into alliance with the warlike Nahua of the neighbouring principality. In spite of his great display of power—Hunac Eel entered upon his campaign against Chichen-Itza with thirteen tributary princes—the result of his expedition was far less decisive than had been

his war against Uxmal, but Chichen-Itza succumbed to overpowering forces. The town, however, retained its own princes, who were to some extent dependent upon the Mayapan government.

For some time past the kingdom of Cocomes had been in a state of internal war. The uncertainty of the chronological calculations of Yucatan history does not make it plain how long these internal struggles in the kingdom of Mayapan had continued; apparently about a century passed by before the

crash came. This was, however, brought about by continual revolts in Chichen-Itza. Religious motives may have been at the bottom of this invincible animosity, or may at least have stimulated it. Mayapan and the priestly town of Itzamal, which were in close alliance, revered Itzamna as their divine founder, while Chichen-Itza by degrees had become the central point of the whole district of Maya civilisation for the worship of Kukulcan, the feathered snake, representations of which are a predominating characteristic in Chichen art. The rivalry between Itzamal and Chichen-

Itza gave occasion for complications resulting in hostilities between the states; it certainly gave considerable impulse to the animosity with which the people of Mayapan were accustomed to regard the rival they had never entirely subdued. But the Cocomes were also blind to their own real interests; they allowed the spirit of division to make further and further inroads into their kingdom, until at last even their foreign mercenaries could no longer cope with the power of the enemy. An alliance was concluded between the



REMAINS OF THE ROYAL PALACE AT UXMAL. During the era of Mexican civilisation many stately buildings were erected at Uxmal, but when a revolt broke out against the tyranny of the Cocomes the royal town was abandoned by its inhabitants.

Tutul Xius, who had retreated to their highlands of Central Yucatan, the rulers of Chichen-Itza, and the enemies in the immediate neighbourhood of the Cocomes, and neither the bands of Nahua warriors nor the fortifications with which Mayapan had long since been surrounded could make head against the united forces of so many opponents. The Cocomes kingdom collapsed, and with it disappeared the last trace of a Maya confederation.

The proud capital which for nearly 500 years

had been the central point of the kingdom—a kingdom whose boundaries had embraced the greater part of the Yucatan peninsula—was utterly destroyed by its revengeful enemies. Though this is a most important occurrence in Yucatan history during the century which preceded the Spanish conquest, yet its date remains quite uncertain.

Apparently the decisive battles took place about the year 1436, after a previous period of nearly twenty years had passed almost without any cessation of hostilities. That this conflict must have consisted



THE GOVERNOR'S PALACE, THE MOST MAGNIFICENT MONUMENT OF CENTRAL AMERICA



COURTYARD OF THE NUNS' HOUSE AND ELLIPTICAL PYRAMID

Built by the Maya peoples in the great days of their prosperity, Uxmal, which some writers are prepared to regard as the home of the earliest civilisation, is to-day so many heaps of ruins from which we may learn much of the past.

Underwood

PREHISTORIC RUINS AT THE IMPERIAL TOWN OF UXMAL IN YUCATAN

rather of a series of revolutionary combats than of a continuous war is certainly to be inferred from the change in circumstances which had taken place. Even the hated Nahua body-guards were not involved in the tyrant's fall, but were spared by the conquerors. They were even allowed to settle in the province of Aculan,

Fall of the Cocomes Power

in the neighbourhood of Campeche, and there to form a little Nahua state. But this was apparently soon absorbed by the Maya, who surrounded it on all sides, for, a century later, at the time of the conquest, not a single Nahua-speaking inhabitant was to be found on the peninsula.

The conquerers, too, left equally unmolested a last branch of the Cocomes race, which was in Ulua at the time of the revolution, apparently attempting to enlist fresh Aztec reinforcements for the help of its mother state. It may have collected around itself the last surviving dependents of the old dynasty, and have founded another small state with their help; by this means the name of Cocomes survived to future generations. The province of Zotuta, with its capital Tibulon, situated deep in the forests of the central regions, was the scene of its rule until the Spaniards made their way there also.

It is not easy to explain the nature of the influence which the fall of the Cocomes power exerted upon the two rival priestly towns of Itzamal and Chichen-Itza. Under its king Ulmil, Chichen-Itza had been for a long time the central point of the resistance offered to the kings of Mayapan; consequently the vials of the royal wrath had repeatedly been poured out upon town and land. In spite of this, up to the time of the destruction of Mayapan, the king of Chichen-Itza invariably appears as a powerful ally of the revolted party. One would have expected that the holy town of the feathered snake would now increase in strength and vigour. On the

Yucatan Split into Kingdoms

contrary, its name entirely disappears from the traditions; upon the division of Yucatan into seven little kingdoms, a condition of things which the Spaniards found upon their conquest, Chichen-Itza appears no longer as an independent kingdom. The abandoned ruins of the town, which were speedily covered by a luxuriant vegetation, were offered by the kings of Itzamal as a resting-place for the first small Spanish troop which made its way

into Yucatan. A possible explanation of this remarkable fact may be found in the legend that a prince of Chichen-Itza had abandoned the land, with the greatest part of his people, in one of the many revolutions which disturbed the last days of the Mayapan dynasty.

He is said to have turned again to the original dwelling-places of the Maya in the far west, hoping thus to avoid these scenes of war and oppression. The Maya state of Peten-Itza, on the lake of Peten, in Guatemala, is reputed to owe its origin to him. On his expedition to Honduras, Ferdinand Cortes visited its capital, which was situated on the island of the Peten lake called by the Spaniards the Isla de Flores. In this district, also, ruins of Maya towns have been recently discovered which would not disgrace the architects of Chichen-Itza, supposing them really to have been the founders of a second younger civilisation in this district, which was, for the Maya, classic ground.

Another curious tradition is connected with the little kingdom of Peten-Itza. The favourite horse of Cortes is said to have been so ill in that place that it could go no farther. It was, there-

The Coming of the Spaniards

fore, handed over to the Maya, with orders to look after it carefully, that it might be given over to the next Spaniards who should come that way. But the Indians, whose reverential awe of the horse—an animal with which they were entirely unacquainted—is known to us from many episodes of the conquest, thought that the best way to look after the horse was to pay him the honours due to a god, to quarter him in a temple, and to feed him with sacrifices. This worship continued until the noble charger was killed by this unusual food, and must then have been replaced by a facsimile in clay.

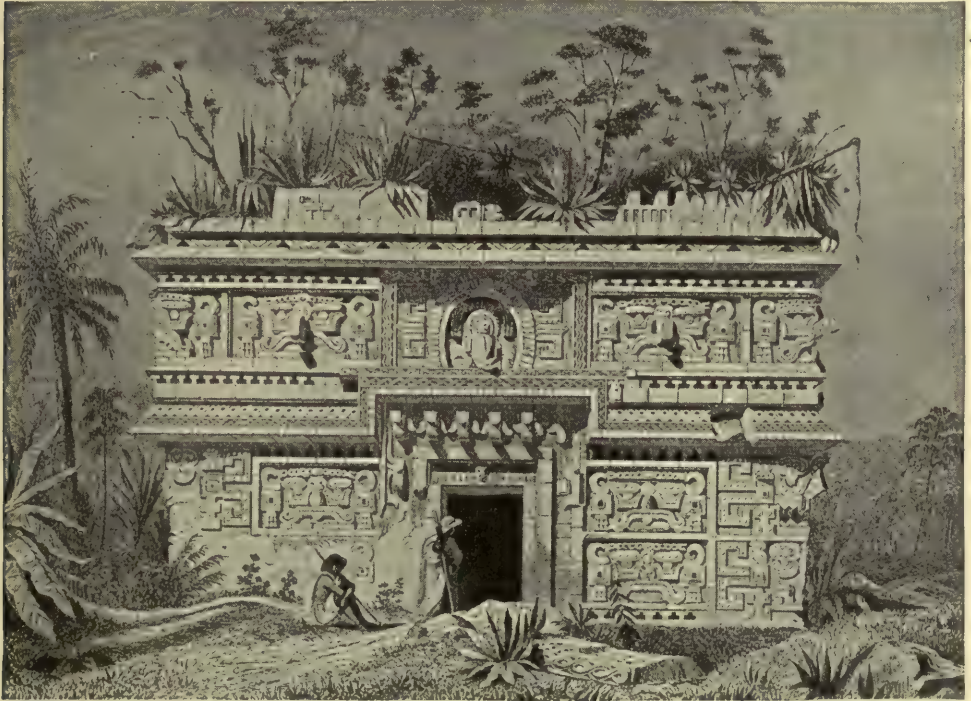
The Maya state of Pente was the longest to maintain its independence against the Spaniards. The remoteness and isolation of the district in which the last Itzaes had set up their habitation were their best protection. Here, for more than a century after the visit of Cortes, the worship of the old gods, the practice of the ancient art, and the study of the old sacred books were maintained; more than one attempt on the part of missionaries and governors to destroy this last retreat of heathendom came to an inglorious end in the extensive jungles which

END OF THE MAYA CIVILISATION

spread their sure defences around the little kingdom of Peten on all sides. It was only in 1671 that a simultaneous attack upon different sides succeeded in uniting a sufficient force at the lake of Peten ; even then the Maya, who had learned the arts of war in their century of battles, resisted with the courage of despair ; but the Indians and their rude and almost primitive implements of destruction could not make head against protective armour and better weapons. And so destruction came upon the last town in which the most ancient civilisation of the New World had gained a respite for its independence.

many generations, also provided secular rulers for the newly rising principality. The Cheles did not probably attempt to revive the aggressive policy of the Cocomes.

Nevertheless, their state, next to the state of Zachi, was by far the most extensive which the Spaniards found in the peninsula, and embraced, with the exception of the little Nahua territory of Campeche, the whole of the north and east. The district of this principality, in which the Spaniards found a friendly reception from the outset, became later the germ of the Spanish province of Yucatan ; Merida, the capital of this province, was built upon the site



RUINS OF A BEAUTIFUL TEMPLE AT UXMAL, SHOWING THE ELABORATE CARVINGS

Long before this time a similar fate had befallen all the other Maya kingdoms. Strangely enough, that town had gained the most profit from the revolution against Mayapan, which should have been most deeply involved in the fall of the Cocomes, as being their closest ally. The greatest part of the district which formed the old kingdom of Mayapan did not fall into the power of the Itzaes of Chichen, or the Tutul Xius of Mani, but to the old priestly town Itzamal ; and the race of the Cheles, from which the high-priesthood of the kingdom of Mayapan had been drawn for

of the ancient Tiho, only a few miles from Itzamal. Chiefly in consequence of their foolish conduct, the Spaniards had many a hard battle to fight before they subjugated the whole Maya district of Yucatan ; but when once peace and order had been firmly re-established in the country, the native population, which was even then numerous, displayed all the virtues peculiar to the ancient race. The docile, pliable, and frugal Maya-Indians tilled the soil for their Christian lords and priests with the same industry which they had displayed under their ancient masters,

and the clever architects and sculptors now erected temples and palaces upon modern designs with all their ancient skill.

It is doubtful whether the Maya kingdom of Guatemala, and the later kingdoms of Quiché, of Kakchiquel, and of Tzutuhil, were first populated when the inroads of the Nahua race menaced the

Ancient Maya Kingdoms

old civilisation of the Tzendal district. It is far more probable that the acquisition of these territories by Maya peoples belongs to an earlier period. The connection of kindred nations in their immediate neighbourhood in so momentous a fashion naturally could not fail to have an influence upon these kingdoms; at any rate, the people of the western highland gained then a strong additional element, which was more advanced than they in civilisation and consequently must have had a considerable influence upon these races.

The Maya people of Guatemala also had a full share in the important acquisition which the civilisation of their race had gained. They were well acquainted with the art of writing in the hieroglyphic signs peculiar to the Maya civilisation. Their legendary traditions, which have come down to us in even greater number than have those of their most advanced kinsfolk on the east, show the same number of religious conceptions; the same gods, with now and then even the same names, are prominent here as there. The complicated astronomical calendar, which must count among the most important scientific achievements of the Maya peoples, was for them also the governing principle in religious and civic life.

But the habits of their daily life, and the buildings thereby developed, were different, and resulted in a sensible difference in the artistic character of the district. This is especially the case with their architecture, which cannot but surprise us,

Architecture of the Western Races

supposing it to have been exclusively derived from the architects of Palenque, Menché, etc. The highlands of Guatemala, in which the capital town of Quiché and its related governments were situated, offered, for the expression of their artistic tendencies, a material of the same value and nature as the Maya had at their disposition in the lower districts. Nevertheless, the architecture of the western races never even approximated to the rich

decorations of the east, and the number of memorials in the plastic art, the highland origin of which is indisputable, is very small. However, from the numerous examples of pottery found in the highlands and in the western district of Guatemala, we observe that these Maya peoples did not break away, as did the Huastecs, from the specific Maya civilisation of the original race, but that they had shared in every form of its development. On pottery ware from Quiché and related towns inscriptions and calendars have been transmitted to us which we are accustomed to find carved in stone or moulded in stucco as architectural decorations among the other Maya races.

The number of sites in the western Maya district, the ruins of which have been discovered, is by no means small, and remains of massive stone buildings, though without the usual artistic decoration, are by no means lacking. But the preponderance of fortifications in the sites of the west distinguishes them in a marked way from those of the lowlands and the Yucatan peninsula. Among the buildings of the lowlands are to be found

Maya Wars With the Nahua Peoples

many the position of which was certainly chosen with a view to resisting hostile attacks. But consideration of strategical necessities is nowhere very conspicuous, and in many places entirely wanting. In Guatemala quite the contrary is the case. The choice of site here shows that strategical considerations were generally of the first importance. Walls, fortresses, and citadels, often of considerable extent, which could have been reduced only by the combined attacks of large forces of men, are the most remarkable remains in the district of Quiché.

The Maya in the lowlands were of a distinctly peaceful disposition; possibly in the course of time an entire change in their national character was brought about by their continual wars with the warlike Nahua races, some of which can be demonstrated to have made their way even as far as Nicaragua. It is, however, more probable that from the outset differences existed between the peaceful races of the flourishing coast-land and the more primitive peoples of the mountains, differences derived from the internal divisions of the district, which did not manifest themselves within the historical epoch. The old town Tulan continually appears



EXAMPLES OF THE EARLY RELIGIOUS SCULPTURES OF CENTRAL AMERICA

Religious worship played an important part in the lives of the Santa Lucians, one of the early races who inhabited America. Among their many deities the most prominent were the sun and moon, both of which in works of sculpture were represented with human forms. The bent staff emanating from the mouth of the worshipper in the first picture represents a petition or prayer which he is making to an aged divinity. The second picture shows a worshipper, the image of death reminding him of the end of his days, adoring a flaming deity, probably the sun.

as a source of all emigrations, and must be sought for in the district of Tabasco, if by Tulan we may understand an individual town. From this town Nima-Quiché—the great Quiché—emigrated with three brothers, and turned his steps westward to the mountains, as we learn from the traditions of the western peoples. The

Tradition of the Western Peoples

brothers are said to have then divided the land so that one obtained the district of Chiapas (Quelenes), the other obtained Verapaz (Tezulutlan), and the third the district of Mames and Pocomams (on the north-west of Guatemala), while he himself gained the land of Quiché, Kakchiquel, and Tzutuhil; the royal house of this kingdom traced its origin from him.

In spite of its Nahua influences this tradition clearly shows the consciousness of a national unity, even among such Maya peoples as have played no further part in history; and it also refers their origin to a time when this national consciousness had not been so wholly deadened as it afterwards was. Chiapas now appears as one of the four Maya kingdoms, and there is nothing to show that this district had already fallen into the hands of foreign conquerors; therefore this division of peoples must be regarded as belonging to a time long before the flight of the Maya from Chiapas.

The later history of the race is hopelessly confused. Continual internal wars, constant emigrations and change of place, revolts against tyrannical power, and confederations of peace are its chief constituents. The very dynasty of the Quiché race is by one historian given as consisting of eleven generations, by another as consisting of seventeen, and even sometimes as of twenty-three. However, the kings of Quiché certainly held an important position among the ruling races of Guatemala, and a chronicler declares that the Quiché kings date back to the era of

Founder of the Quiché Kingdom

the Aztec rulers of Mexico—Tenochtitlan, adding at the same time that the Quiché kingdom was not merely equal to the Aztec kingdom in extent, but that it was even far superior to it. For the disruption of the small kingdoms of Kakchiquel and Tzutuhil, different reasons are suggested. The succession to King Acxopil, the successor of the Nima-Quiché, the real founder of the Quiché kingdom, may possibly have led to the

disruption. The rulers of the smaller kingdoms remained, however, in honourable relations with the chief kingdom of Quiché, and were even interested in the maintenance of the supreme power in consequence of the mode of succession peculiar to these American kingdoms.

Acxopil during his lifetime handed over to his eldest son the government of the kingdom of Kakchiquel, and to the younger the government of Tzutuhil, with the stipulation that after his death the elder son should govern the whole kingdom, including Quiché, the second son should govern Kakchiquel, and a third should rule over Tzutuhil. The object of this arrangement was that each ruler, before obtaining the highest position in the state, should undergo a training for supremacy in positions of gradually increasing importance. It does not appear, however, that this regulation was strictly observed after his death.

Icutemal, the elder of the sons of Acxopil, got possession of the throne of Quiché; but he handed over the rulership of Kakchiquel to his own elder son, and not to his brother.

An Era of Internal Struggles

This was a signal for the outbreak of protracted internal struggles, which lasted uninterruptedly almost up to the Spanish conquest. In this case also the neighbouring Nahua races were enlisted as allies in the wars of these related Maya kingdoms. Their influence was here so strongly pronounced that the bloody human sacrifices and the cannibalism practised by the Nahua were also adopted by the Maya. At any rate, all our information testifies that the Maya people in Guatemala were far more extensively commingled with Nahua elements than in Yucatan.

The three kingdoms continued mutually independent and in a state of constant internal struggle until the arrival of the Spaniards. In 1492 a number of the chiefs of Kakchiquel revolted against Cay Hunahpu, who had again attempted to extend his empire at the expense of his neighbours. He was defeated, and atoned for his aggression by his death. In this there is nothing extraordinary; but the Kakchiquel attached such importance to this victory that they made it the starting-point of a new chronology. In true revolutionary style they abolished the whole of the old priestly calendar and created a year of 400 days, divided into twenty months of twenty days each. They are



THE SYMBOLICAL SCULPTURES OF THE SANTA LUCIANS

That the Santa Lucians had attained a highly developed state of culture is evidenced from their works of art. Although most of their sculptures represent some form of worship, there are many depicting scenes of ordinary day life. To the latter belongs the centre picture, where two men of the nobler classes are seen conversing. The other two show sick men, one of whom is visited by a medicine man in the guise of a deer, which is a reminder of the moderate number of years he has lived, thus bidding him be of good hope; the other an elderly man finding himself in the presence of death.

the only race of Central America which abandoned the scientific astronomical calendar of the Maya. It requires no great penetration to see that their new year was no advance upon the old one, but was an act as futile as it was arbitrary.

The Years of Aztec Dominion In spite of numerous relations with the Nahua races, there seems to have been no real connection between the Maya kingdom and the Aztec kingdom of Montezuma. The existence of each was known to the other, and embassies may have been exchanged between them even before the arrival of the Spaniards. The Aztec conquests certainly came extremely close to the boundaries of the Maya kingdom in the last ten years of Aztec dominion; this did not conduce to any close connection between the two groups of states.

The Quiché were so much occupied with warding off the attacks of hostile kinsfolk within the boundaries of their own kingdom that they could not turn their attention to foreign conquest, which might have brought them into conflict with the Aztecs. When the Spaniards began to encroach upon the Aztec kingdom, Montezuma II. is said to have sent a great embassy to the king of Kakchiquel; they do not, however, seem to have been able to come to an understanding. Before the Spaniards had undertaken the

subjugation of the Maya kingdom of Guatemala, emissaries of the king of Kakchiquel appeared in Mexico, which was the first kingdom to fall before Cortes, and asked for his help against the Quiché.

Naturally this help was gladly lent in view of future possibilities. In the year 1524 the Adelantado Pedro de Alvarado appeared in Iximcat, and, in alliance with the Kakchiquel, began a war against the Quiché, and conquered them in several bloody conflicts. The Tzutuhil had remained neutral, trusting to the inaccessibility of their kingdom, and had refused their help, not only to the Quiché, but also to the Spaniards. This fact provided a pretext for Alvarado to turn his forces against them; and neither the resources of Nature nor those of art could avail to protect the Tzutuhil against the power of Spain. The Kakchiquel learned too late that they had gained a Spanish alliance, for which they had so much sought, at the price of their own freedom.

Alliance at the Price of Freedom When they tried to shake off the yoke which was imperceptibly laid upon them, the moment had long since passed when their resistance could have been attended with any hopes of success. The blood that they shed in vain could only expiate their criminal action in being the first to throw open their country to the foreign invader.



FRONT AND BACK VIEWS OF BURIAL MASKS OF THE ANCIENT MEXICANS

These masks, generally made of copper or wood, were used among the Maya peoples for the purpose of covering the face of the dead, thus keeping away the demons while their wearers made their journey to the "abode of the clouds."



ADVANCE OF THE NAHUA PEOPLES THE LEGEND OF TOLTEC CIVILISATION

IN the sixteenth century the Spaniards found a numerous population of Nahua, people who had been settled for many hundreds of years, in a territory which lies upon the north of the districts of Maya civilisation, and stretches to the borders of the Pueblo Indians—that is, from the Isthmus of Tehuantepec up to the boundaries of Texas and New Mexico.

These peoples did not, however, consider their country as their original home; in fact, there was there a remnant of a foreign population which had, in general, followed the steps of Nahua civilisation. The migration legends which were widely extant among the Nahua give very consistent narratives, and point to the home of the race having been situated in the far north upon a great water. In this legend the place-names Aztlan (the Town on the Water) and Chicomoztoc (the Seven Caves) play a great part. This legend has evoked a whole literature.

Emigration of the Nahua Peoples

From the coast of the Pacific Ocean to the North American lakes, from Bering Strait to the Plain of Mexico, scarcely a spot can be found which one or another inquirer has not connected with the emigrations of the Aztecs from Aztlan-Chicomoztoc to Mexico-Tenochtitlan.

The traces of emigration of the Nahua peoples in a northerly direction, other than those of a legendary nature, are extremely inadequate. The district which lay a little to the north of the later centre of Nahua civilisation—that is, the plateau of Anahuac—was populated in comparatively early times by the race of the Pueblo Indians. Their civilisation shows some points of resemblance to the Nahua culture; but the fundamental differences are so striking or extreme that it is impossible to suppose a Nahua migration through this region even in remote times. Traces of the Nahua language have certainly been found in proper names, or, as it were, fossilised in the dialects of the

Pueblo peoples in Sinaloa, and as much farther north as the Hopi or Moqui or Tusayan. Even in the district of Maya civilisation we are surprised to find in the chronicles of the sixteenth century many names of places derived from the Nahua speech. But we are well assured that the reason for this is not that the Nahua district extended into this territory, but that the Spaniards were guided into this district by Indians who were only acquainted with Nahua power and with Nahua names for the places. These names have thus been stereotyped by tradition, and confirmed by the preponderance of the Nahua element in the midst of the Spanish colonisations. A similar state of things must undoubtedly have come to pass on the north also.

The historical traditions of the Nahua race invite the conclusion that their original home was certainly situated in the northern portion of the district in which the Spaniards found their race predominant. Not only the hieroglyphic designs, which were partially complete before the period of conquest, but also the Spanish chroniclers, who collected their information from the natives, point to the fact that the Nahua races had long lived as a wholly uncivilised fishing and hunting people within those boundaries where they were discovered in the sixteenth century. Even then there were individual related peoples who had not yet obtained a share in the civilisation of their more favoured brethren, and only a short time had elapsed, if we may believe tradition, since certain races who at the time of the Spanish conquest stood high in the scale of general civilisation had given up their wandering lives and turned to agriculture and the blessings of progress.

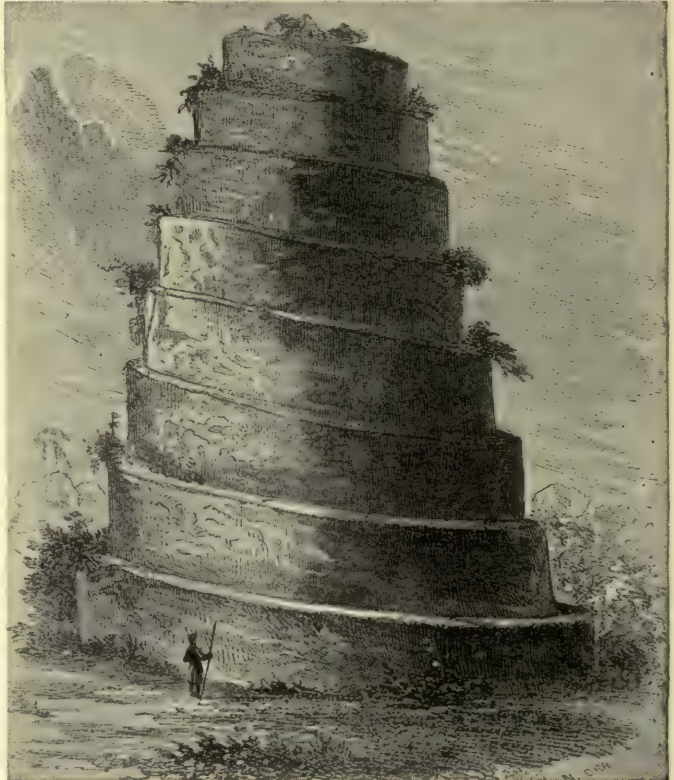
Wandering Races Turn to Agriculture

The desire for a settled life was certainly not prominent among the Nahua, and least of all among the Aztecs, and it is a

tendency which we cannot consider to have been gained by imitating civilised predecessors, even in the case of the most civilised peoples of America.

Like the Maya, the Indians of Central America made no difficulty about abandoning their habitations, where for generations they had been settled and had worked, supposing their political circumstances to have altered for the worse. The wanderings of the Aztecs are of themselves evidence that they were the last to leave their common home, Aztlan-Chicomoztoc. For at least ten years in historical times they wandered among the different nations of the Nahua race, which ages ago had obtained a secure settlement and made great advances in civilisation. That tradition should have remained pure in the case of such inequality of development, under the unfavourable circumstances which the nomad life of an uncivilised people involves, is wholly incredible; mythological and religious conceptions have much more probably formed the basis of the legends of the migration of the Nahua from Aztlan-Chicomoztoc. Constantly and for all time the Nahua have been an inland race. Both on the Atlantic and also on the Pacific coasts at a late period they drove out an older population which does not seem to have been akin to themselves. But even after some of their peoples had settled in the tropical climate of their coast-land they still retained the objection of an inland race to the "great salt water." The Maya engaged in an extensive maritime commerce from their own harbours; the Nahua peoples engaged in commerce, too, but their extensive traffic was carried on exclusively on the high-roads, although many of the Nahua people were acquainted with the construction of fishing-boats. Yet in their history we find the Nahua, with all their objection to the sea,

unmistakably associated with the water. A legend which places their birthplace on a great water is evidence of this, and in their history the lakes on the highlands of Anahuac play a most important part. Even without this lake district a number of centres of Nahua development were also situated on the shores of lakes—as,



A PYRAMIDAL BUILDING OF THE AZTECS IN OAXACA
The western slopes of the Cordilleras are particularly rich in architectural antiquities, relics of the early Aztecs, who at one time inhabited these regions. Our knowledge of the significance of these relics is necessarily limited, as for centuries they remained buried, and have only been excavated within recent times.

for instance, Tezcuco, Chalco, and Tenochtitlan. Over and over again, in history and in legend, we meet with the water and that which it brings forth.

The nature of their environment had made the Nahua a people of hunters and fishers; it had also created in them a further characteristic, a fierce warlike spirit. It is true that under the snowy peaks of the Cordilleras an everlasting spring reigned in the deep valleys of Mexico; the climate was far more suitable for a people of careless enjoyment than for a race of ferocious warriors. Hunting, moreover, could not have exercised a very hardening influence; in the

ADVANCE OF THE NAHUA PEOPLES

whole kingdom there was no wild animal which could have been particularly dangerous to huntsmen, when armed even with the simplest of weapons. It was the ancient inhabitants of the land that made the Nahuatl a nation of warriors.

Upon their immigration they did not find their future country uninhabited, as the Maya had done in Yucatan. That they found there a trace of inhabitants foreign to themselves may be concluded from the traditions, although the inadequacy of our information makes it impossible to establish the ethnological character of this race. In the myths of the Nahuatl giants

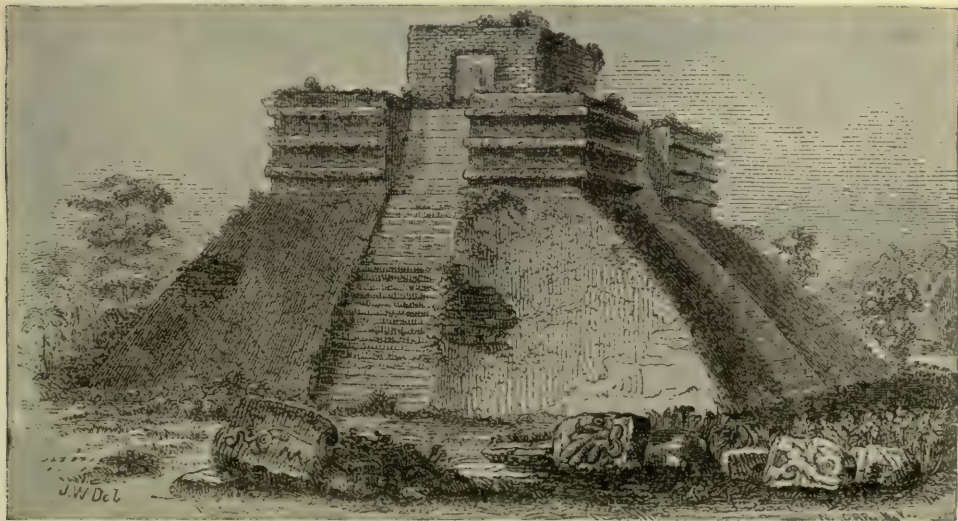
The Nahuatl a Race of Warriors

of superhuman size and unbounded strength appear, and though we cannot put a literal interpretation on this, as did the old Spanish chroniclers, who identified the bones of antediluvian animals with the skeletons of this giant race, we may none the less conclude that the Nahuatl had a long and bitter struggle with a powerful enemy, and that they must have exerted their utmost resources and carried on a war of unceasing destruction before they succeeded in winning a territory where their race might develop to its full strength. It was in this warfare that that fierce warrior spirit was implanted in this untutored people.

We find the Nahuatl everywhere a race of warriors, alike fearful and feared, and we come across some of them outside

their later district, as, for instance, in Yucatan and Guatemala; but the traditions within their own territories are of an equally warlike character. Battle and victory, conquest and destruction are the dominant features of their art; and in their case war was closely connected with religion—religion in its most horrible and frightful form, as it appeared in the bloody worship of the Aztecs for their national god Huitzilopochtli. In the strange horrors of this worship inquirers have attempted to trace the influence of peoples earlier than the Nahuatl; they have ascribed the cult to the temporary stay of the Aztecs in the district of Tarasca. But even leaving out of sight the fact that a remote branch of the Nahuatl race was possibly settled even in Tarasca, this cruel worship, with its numerous human sacrifices, is by no means peculiar to the Aztecs.

It appears in a more or less horrible form among almost all the Nahuatl people, and it is no external accessory of divine worship; it is rather the typical form of that worship. Let us suppose that the majority of this race were not under the influence of similar conceptions; we have then to ask by what possibility that compact could have been brought about between Mexico, Tlaxcala, and Huexotzinco, the provisions of which regulated wars for these three states, with a view to providing a sufficient number of captured enemies for sacrifice to their gods



REMAINS OF AN ANCIENT AZTEC BUILDING NEAR TEHUANTEPEC IN OAXACA

That the ancient Aztecs possessed many claims to civilisation is demonstrated by the majesty and dignity of their architectural designs, which often attain enormous dimensions. The specimen on this page was concealed for ages within a luxuriant growth of vegetation, so dense that people living in the near vicinity were unaware of its existence—

upon given occasions. War, human sacrifice, and ceremonial cannibalism are characteristic of the Nahua. The special influences that led the national character of the race in this direction must certainly be placed in a period long anterior to the disruption of the Nahua people into its separate branches, and still further anterior to the supposed stay of the Aztecs among the people of Tarasca.

At the time of the Spanish invasion the Nahua certainly were no longer that nation of fishermen, hunters and fierce warriors which had begun to develop at the outset in the highlands of Anahuac. On the contrary, a development, lasting for centuries, had resulted in a civilisation which in many districts could compete with the civilisation of the Maya, and the external splendours of which completely dazzled the Spaniards. This civilisation, however, as almost all our sources of information consistently assert, was not the result of slow development on the part of the people themselves, but was acquired and imported from without. The Nahua races of the valleys of Mexico, the traditions of which are known to us, were proud to consider themselves Chichimecs, and almost all the Chichimec races appear originally as half-wild, wandering, ill-clothed tribes of huntsmen, who received their first introduction into the ways of civilisation by communication with older nations who were already firmly settled in confederate towns and states, and were occupied in agriculture. The different histories of the race, which were not confused by any attempt to harmonise the Christian and old American chronologies, go back some six or seven centuries into the past. Many a race which has later

played an important part in the history of Central America must have given up its wild and wandering life, and have gained its first impulse to civilisation within that short period; these traditions, which almost without exception avail themselves of long dynasties to serve their chronological necessities, imply the previous existence of several civilised states.

The Toltecs, as the chief exponents of Nahua civilisation, appear to some extent in the more ancient sculptures, and still more often in the later histories which

were modelled upon European examples. According to the later legends which have come down to us, the Toltecs were a branch of the Nahua race, and also came from the north, from Chicomoztoc to the town Huehuetlapallan, about the fourth century of our era. At the beginning of the sixth century they are said to have been settled on a tableland of Mexico, Tula being the capital of their kingdom, and soon to have risen to a fabulous development of civilisation. Here all their esoteric knowledge is said to have been acquired, and it was also here that the scientific regulation of the calendar, which became an example for all

other peoples, was carried out by the Toltec priests and kings. Moreover, the Toltecs are also said to have compiled the history of the past and to have established an authentic text of it. But, above all, they are reputed to have been the teachers of all later nations in the sphere of art, especially in architecture and sculpture.

The buildings which adorned their settlements displayed a splendour and a magnificence almost unrivalled by the famous palace towns of later times, such as Tezcuco and Tenochtitlan. After an existence of several centuries the Toltec

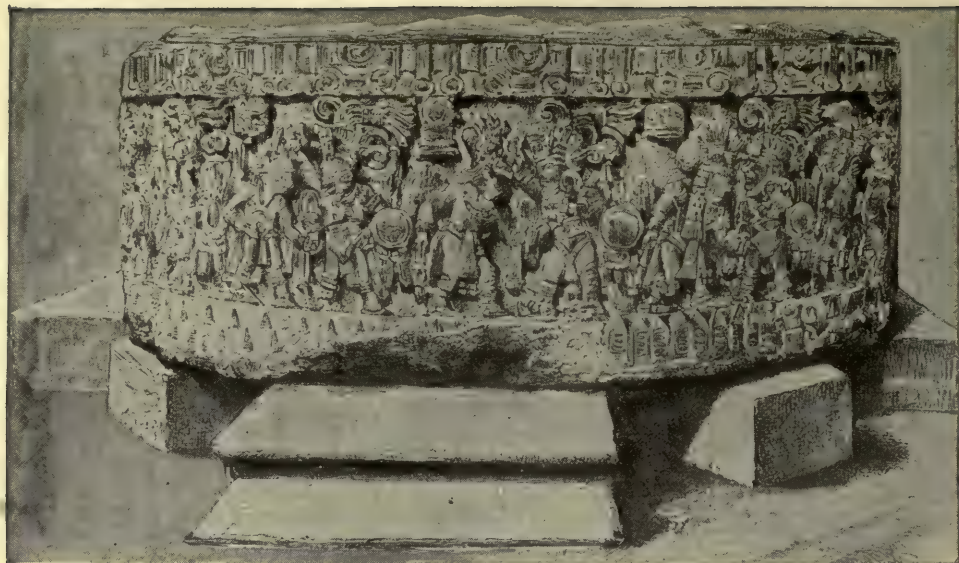


THE AZTEC GOD OF DEATH AND WAR



A TOLTEC KING SEATED ON HIS THRONE

To recent research we owe much of our knowledge with regard to the Toltecs, a prehistoric people of Mexico and Central America who had attained a high level of civilisation, and were advanced in arts. The above picture, by a French artist, is based upon the suggestions as to costume and decorations, as well as the actual physical characteristics of the people, obtained from their sculptured remains.



"THE STONE OF THE SUN": A RELIC OF AMERICA'S ANCIENT CIVILISATION

This interesting relic of the past, known as Tizoc's Stone, or the Stone of the Sun, consists of a block of trachyte measuring over eight feet in diameter, thirty-one feet in circumference, and two feet six inches in depth, the surface being ornamented with two figures ingeniously portrayed in fifteen different attitudes, recalling the victories of the Emperor Tizoc, who in every one of the groups is represented holding the vanquished by the hair.

kingdom is supposed to have collapsed, about the year 1055, as a result of internal struggle and external attacks. Its territory fell into the hands of the other neighbouring states. The Toltec nobles, however, who fled into every district of Anahuac upon the fall of the kingdom, were everywhere the missionaries of that advanced civilisation which was acquired by the other peoples of the Nahua as a direct result of the fall of this kingdom. These are the general features of the legend; the details, however, are terribly

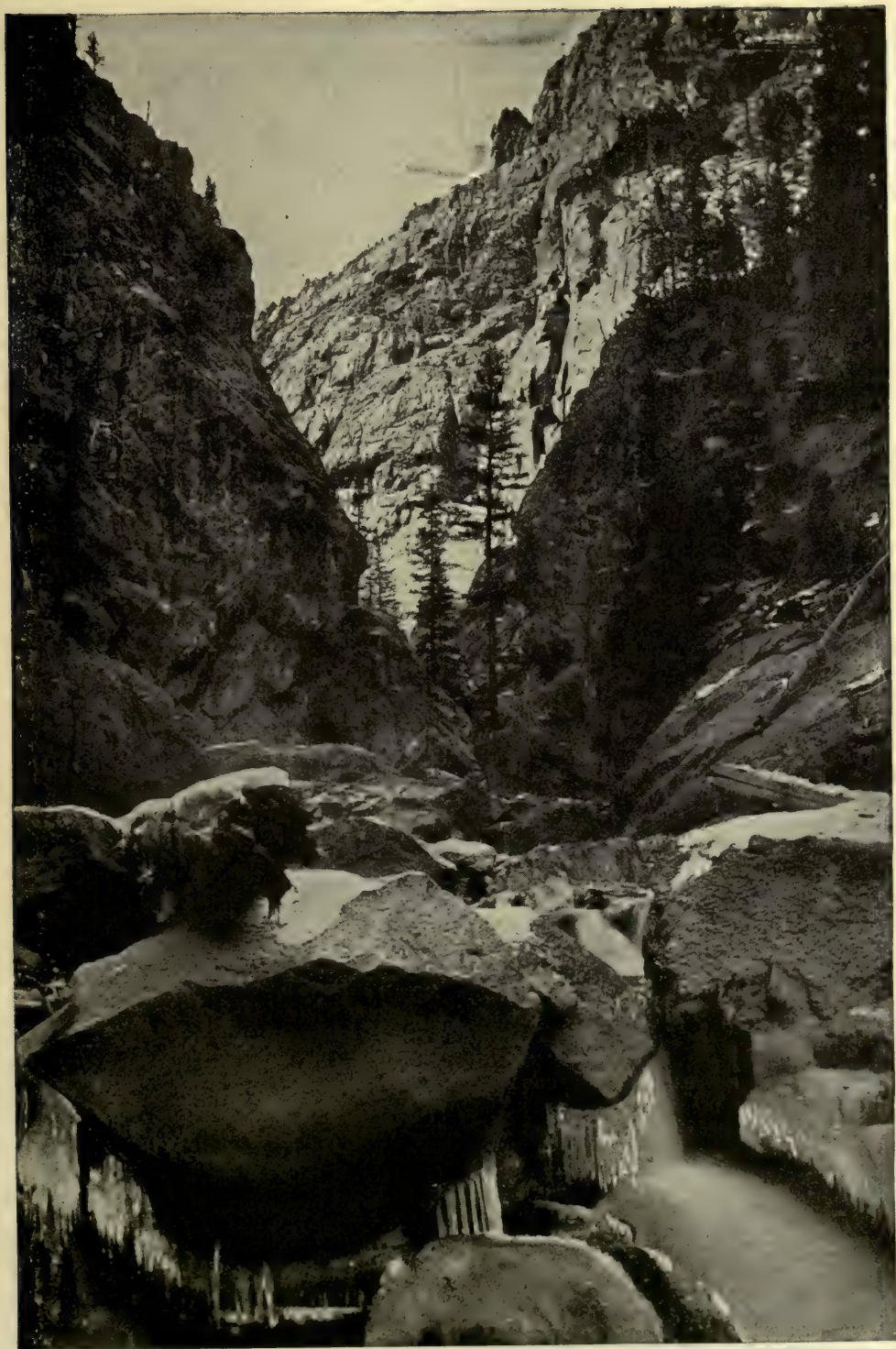
strong mythological element. For instance, there is said to have been a decree that the rule of each individual monarch should last neither more nor less than fifty-two years; if he lived longer, he was obliged, after a reign of fifty-two years, to abdicate in favour of his eldest son; supposing he died before that period, a council of the elders continued the government in his name until the legal term was fulfilled. Fifty-two years, however, was the period of the great Mexican cycle of years which was used to make the ritual

calendar coincide with the solar year; at the beginning of this period, the holy fire was again kindled with ceremonial festival, under the belief that by that means the existence of the world was again insured for a like period. The further we retrace the story, however, the more doubtful do the facts become, and the



AZTEC CALENDAR STONE

Discovered near Zecatepec in Mexico, this primitive calendar of early American civilisation is now in the National Museum at Mexico City.



THE TOLTEC GORGE: IN PREHISTORIC TIMES A POPULOUS CENTRE

At the Toltec Gorge, so called because of its association with the Toltec civilisation of Central America, large quantities of instruments and weapons have been discovered, these throwing considerable light on the customs of the past.

stronger is the mythological element. Excavations have certainly laid bare ancient ruins upon the site of the presumed settlement of that famous Toltec kingdom in the town of Tula, some miles north of Mexico, but these ruins are neither extensive nor imposing. The artistic value of the ruined buildings upon the soil of

Quetzalcoatl the old Nahua states sensibly
King of diminishes as we advance
the Toltecs from north to south—a fact in opposition to the Toltec legend. Moreover, with the exception of the foundation and destruction of cities, almost everything that we know of the Toltecs centres round the personality of a king, Quetzalcoatl.

But this name, denoting the feathered snake, like the Maya Kukulcan, is also the name of a divinity which in later times was worshipped far and wide throughout the Nahua kingdom; his appearance makes us the more suspicious, as other names in the dynasty also coincide with the names of gods, and several kings have been deified by tradition. For these reasons the historical substratum of the Toltec legend becomes more and more hypothetical. Once, perhaps, there may have existed a Toltec principality, with Tula for its capital, which may have played a certain part in the racial feuds of the little Nahua kingdom; but the Toltecs have no right to the importance which has been ascribed to them as being the chief civilising influence of Anahuac.

The name "Tulan" also appears in the original legends of the Maya; it does not, however, denote any one particular place, but it is a general designation for a large royal settlement richly adorned; the legend also alludes to no less than four Tulans existing at the same time. If we could venture to identify the Tula of Nahua tradition with the similarly named Maya towns, and could then consider the Maya people themselves as the Nahua

The Toltecs
Related to
the Nahua Toltecs, this would be the easiest solution of the problem. Unfortunately there are great difficulties in the way of such an explanation. The Toltecs are invariably a people related to the Nahua, and therefore speaking their language; and their habitations upon the north of the later Nahua district—the plateau of Mexico—are in accordance with this fact; neither of these can be brought into connection with the Maya by any means. If,

however, we cannot venture to identify the Maya with the Toltecs, we may consider the connection between Maya and Nahua civilisation as indisputable. We have now to ask in what manner the advance in civilisation which the Maya had gained also fell to the share of the Nahua peoples, and how these peoples advanced from the coast of Tabasco up into the northern heights of the Mexican tableland.

The political circumstances which the Spaniards found on the Mexican tableland at the conquest have brought it about that we possess reliable information concerning the history only of those people who lived in Anahuac; that is, in the neighbourhood of the Mexican lakes. The numerous related nations that had settled on the north, and even more extensively on the south, of the tableland were almost as much strangers to the Aztecs and their related nations of Anahuac as the Maya peoples were. In historical times the immediate neighbours of the Maya of Guatemala were the Zapotecs, the Mixtecs, and the Kuikatecs. Even if their habitations remained unchanged, as they apparently did, throughout the

Facts from
a Recent
Discovery period that the Nahua settlements of Anahuac lasted, we can, nevertheless, suppose a long-existing connection between the Maya and this branch of the Nahua nation, and this all the more because the necessary indications which we have at our disposal for the reconstruction of the earlier history of this race point to a close connection.

An illuminated manuscript of Kuikatec origin that has only recently been discovered informs us that the Kuikatecs, under the guidance of their racial god, apparently entitled "Maollin," wandered and fought for six centuries in the district which formed the boundary between the Maya and Nahua peoples in ancient times. The localities mentioned in the manuscript cannot all be certainly identified, but they point to the districts of Guatemala and Chiapas. The migrations then continued in a southerly direction not far from the Pacific coast.

There the Kuikatecs finally met with an insurmountable obstacle, and therefore turned aside in an easterly direction, crossed the north of Guatemala, and finally arrived safely in Chiapas, in a territory of Acalan, a district immediately bordering upon Yucatan. Probably these

ADVANCE OF THE NAHUA PEOPLES

and similar migrations of the Nahua races brought about the fall of the flourishing Maya towns of Chiapas and Tabasco. The majority of the Maya peoples may have abandoned their old home to this enemy ; but some of their members there certainly were who either became the subjects of the new arrivals, as their tributary vassals, or were prevented by force from escaping the new dominion. It is in these causes that we must seek the interchange of civilisation between the Maya and the Nahua

teristic. Their invasion into the district of Maya civilisation cannot be affirmed with the same certainty ; but in later times we meet with them in the immediate neighbourhood of the Maya, and settled upon a portion of that district the antiquities of which indisputably point to a previous settlement of the Maya peoples. On the Zapotecs the influence of Maya civilisation was extremely powerful. Even their language has undergone a strong admixture of Maya words and forms. It



AN UNDECIPHERED PAGE FROM THE VIENNA NAHUA MANUSCRIPT OF ZAPOTEC ORIGIN
The page here reproduced belongs to the series of Codex Viennensis, in which regular pictorial designs appear in connection with dates. It is, therefore, presumed that these hitherto inexplicable designs are of a historical character.

racés. The well-known precedents of the Germanic migrations upon our own continent make us familiar with the fact that a people in a high state of civilisation may collapse helplessly before the vigorous attacks of a less cultured race, but that in a short time their own higher culture leavens the mass of the conquerors and again brings the old civilisation to the front. How far the Kuikatecs were influenced by Maya civilisation we cannot exactly define ; but in the case of the Zapotecs this influence is very charac

would, however, be a mistake to dispute their connection with the Nahua race ; for the Spanish chronicles regard the Zapotecs as a nation foreign to the Maya and connected with the peoples of Mexico.

Moreover, even the scanty accounts which we learn from this people themselves show that they must be placed among the nations of the Nahua race. Among these nations, however, they were at any rate one of those peoples who very early gave up the savage life of the old hunting races for a more civilised mode of existence ;

for centuries they have unmistakably taken a leading position in all the acquisitions of civilised progress among the Nahua peoples. A considerable portion of the literary treasures which have come down to us from the time when the Nahua civilisation was developing independently belongs to the Zapotecs. Their manu-

**The Maya
Religious
Calendar**

scripts are not written in Maya script, but, with the exception of some small characteristic divergences, coincide with the mode of writing found in Aztec and other undoubtedly Nahuatlac documents. Probably the Zapotecs, or their kinsfolk, formed their mode of writing, which later became the property of all the Nahua peoples, under the influence and in imitation of that with which the Maya had made them acquainted.

A further relationship is visible between the Maya manuscripts and those of Zapotec origin in the extensive representations which are concerned with the religious calendar, in which, as we know, the Maya have given proof of astonishing astronomical knowledge. The peculiar sacred calendar system of the Maya shows the combination of the numbers 20 and 13—a combination which appears nowhere else in the world. This system was adopted in its main elements by the Zapotecs and four other Nahua peoples.

Moreover, careful examination has established the fact that the titles for each particular day, which are invariably taken from the objects of daily life, are essentially the same in the case of every language the calendar names of which are known to us. So close is this coincidence that even the names of the days with which the sacred or ritual year might begin (a year composed of 13 by 20 equals 260 days, in combination with the solar year) hang together, in the case of Maya and Nahua peoples respectively, in such a way that a more ancient group of names

in combination among the Maya of Chiapas and Tabasco, and the Zapotecs and related nations, can be distinguished from a more recent combination in use among the Maya of Yucatan and the Aztec-Nahua. It is plain that these are no chance coincidences, and when we consider the remarkable development which astronomical science had reached among the Maya, it is equally plain in this case who it was that gave and

who it was that received. Finally, the Zapotecs were instructed by the Maya in another department—that of architecture. The old Zapotec district, which is to-day the Mexican province Oaxaca, contains ruins of ancient Indian buildings in different places; but most of these are so dilapidated that we can draw only the vaguest conclusions as to their original condition.

The ruins of Mitla are an exception to this rule, chiefly because their stronger buildings made them more capable of resisting the attacks of time. Mitla is only the Mexican name for the town which the Zapotecs themselves called Yopaa; both names mean "the Place of the Dead." Possibly the Xibalbay of the Maya, which also means "Town of the Dead," is the most ancient name of this town, and goes back to an epoch when this district was also in possession of the Maya peoples. At any rate, there is no particular proof of this in the paintings which exist in the rooms of the temple-building of Mitla and are still in good condition; they

**Mitla
in
Ruins**

are undoubtedly of later origin and belong to the Nahua civilisation. On the contrary, the architectural style of the building—partly below and partly above ground, with its decorated rooms and its roof of over-hanging courses—resembles far more nearly the Maya architecture than that of the younger Nahua peoples. For instance, the temple buildings of the Aztecs consist almost entirely of high pyramids artistically faced, on which there are no buildings at all, or erections of only a temporary nature.

Our historical information about the Zapotec kingdom goes back only a few decades—certainly not a century—before the Spanish conquest. When the Aztec kingdom began to extend in a south-westerly direction, the Zapotecs appear in the circle of the Aztec princes. About the year 1484, Ahuitzotl, the seventh king of Mexico-Tenochtitlan, made an invasion far into the Zapotec district in the direction of Tehuantepec, and in the fortress Huaxyacac he laid the basis of further conquest. At that time different Zapotec towns or principalities became either subject or tributary to the Aztecs; and on this occasion Mitla also, the sacred town of the Zapotecs, was conquered and destroyed by the Mexicans.

AMERICA
BEFORE
COLUMBUS



ANCIENT
CIVILISATIONS
OF CENTRAL
AMERICA
V

NAHUA RELIGION AND MYTHOLOGY

THE GODS AND HUMAN SACRIFICES

THE Central American civilisation, with the changes which the Zapotecs had imposed upon it, made its way northward, and finally became the common property of almost all the Nahua peoples. The individual steps of this progress cannot be recognised in the scanty remains which have come down to us from the Nahua races which were settled between the Zapotecs and the highland of Anahuac.

As to the Mixtecs, we know that they also built terraced pyramids, on which were raised the altars of their gods; they too had learned to hand down to posterity the histories of their gods and princes in those written characters with which we first meet among the Zapotecs. They measured the lapse of their days and the recurrence of their festivals by a calendar founded upon the same principles as that of Central America. It is impossible, however, to give any more accurate description of the position which this race held among the advancing civilisations. As we go farther north, this civilisation assumes a more general character, and can be designated as the Aztec offshoot of Central American culture. It is a civilisation which certainly has affinities with the ancient Maya, though it struck out a line of its own in those centuries when its progress was free from external influence.

**Culture
of the
Mixtecs**

Once more in the northern districts we meet with traces which recall to our minds the southern origin of the Mexican civilisation; these are in the town of Cholula. The famous pyramid which has been named after this town, and which excited the astonishment and amazement of the Spanish conquerors, has been for a long time in such a ruined condition that it is impossible to assign its position in American art from its artistic style. The old chroniclers, however, inform us that, unlike the Aztec temple pyramids, which were usually crowned by an open altar of the god, this pyramid bore a roofed-in

building on its summit. This reminds us of the architectural style of the more southern races, and the name of the god to whom the temple was dedicated points in the same direction; his name was Quetzalcoatl—that is, the feathered snake.

**God of
the Feathered
Snake**

The religious conception on which the symbol of the feathered snake is based is so widely spread over American soil that we cannot at once assume it to have been borrowed from any similar neighbouring worship; the analogous development of the mythological conceptions of the American peoples would lead us to a complete explanation of this occurrence of identical symbols. However, in Cholula, and in the cult of the god Quetzalcoatl, we have to deal, not only with an observed similarity to the Kukulcan or Gukumatz of the Maya, but we have also to consider the complete identity of the god, his mythology and his worship, which could not be established without some internal communication.

According to Mexican tradition, Quetzalcoatl came to the country in a boat, passing over the western ocean with a few companions; he is said to have landed upon Mexican soil in the far north of the country, on the River Panuco. To the naked savages who then inhabited the land he was a marvellous apparition, a figure clothed in shining raiment, and wearing a beard, an appendage unusual among the natives. Quetzalcoatl soon taught them the arts of peace, in particular agriculture and weaving; he gave them

**The Legend
of
Quetzalcoatl**

writing to preserve his teaching, and the calendar to regulate his worship. After he had established a well-ordered state in the land where formerly only wandering huntsmen dwelt, he disappeared, with the promise that he would again revisit his people. This legend in every particular coincides so exactly with the Maya legend of Kukulcan that we cannot doubt the



PYRAMIDS OF THE SUN AND THE MOON AT TEOTIHUACAN, IN MEXICO

The pyramids of the sun and the moon, at Teotihuacan, belong to that early period when, like Mitla, Teotihuacan was not only a place of pilgrimage for the living, but also a sacred place, in which to be buried was to be sure of salvation.

one being borrowed from the other. There is a further point to be considered. The custom of human sacrifice is a characteristic feature in Nahua worship; at the bottom of it was the religious belief that the offering to the god was sanctified by its sacrifice, and that to some extent transubstantiation into the divine essence took place. Consequently the sacrifice—often before its death—became an object of veneration. Thus, too, it was that the corpse was eaten, in order that everybody who tasted of it should assimilate a portion of the divine substance; and for this reason again the skin of the victim served as a sacred covering for the image of the god himself, or for his earthly representatives, the priests.

These ideas are entirely Nahuatlac, and are altogether wanting among the Maya of ancient times who had not been influenced by the Nahua; also among younger nations of the same origin, among whom the custom of human sacrifice was in restricted use, the particular Nahua adoptions of it are nowhere to be found. Quetzalcoatl, in Maya consciousness, has always been a divinity who not only objected to human sacrifice in his own worship, but entirely abhorred the characteristic Nahua use of the offering, and this at the time when it gained its highest importance and extent under the Aztec

dominion. The worship of Quetzalcoatl was carried on in a closed temple-chamber with penance and discipline, but only with inoffensive victims. It formed a kind of secret worship in opposition to the bloody sacrifice openly made to Huitzilopochtli and Tezcatlipoca; and to it the last king of the Aztecs, Montezuma, resorted as soon as his own gods and their priests had proved helpless before the stranger who had come forth from the waters of the west, with his beard and his armour of gleaming brass.

In one other place we find a wide district of Mexico thickly covered with the ruins of old buildings—that is, on the eastern coast-line, north of Vera Cruz, in the district of the Totonacs. It is possible that these Nahua architects also had Maya neighbours upon their borders; these must have been the Huastecs, who had been driven northward far from the mass of the Maya people. But the ruins that have been found in their own district are very inadequate, and our knowledge of their history is extremely scanty; it would therefore be a bold conclusion to assign the existence of the numerous architectural remains in the district of the Totonacs to the influence of their civilisation. Moreover, the position of the buildings is here of a different character from those in the Maya district. The terraced

The Work of Nahua Architects



A NEARER VIEW OF THE PYRAMID OF THE SUN

This closer view of the pyramid of the sun illustrates the striking manner in which Nature has regained mastery over the works of man, the huge mound being now entirely covered with shrubs and other natural growth.

pyramid here, too, forms the foundation of that space which was consecrated to the worship of the gods, following the universal character of the pyramids in the Maya and Nahua territories. But the heavy flights of steps, and a wall running round the upper terrace, are a distinct divergence from the normal type; they excite particular attention, as they remind us of the strategical purposes so strongly marked in all the Totonac cities.

Generally the Totonac pyramids do not seem to have been crowned with a massive temple of stone, and in this respect they have approached the Hahua type; but in the few cases where the upper platform is decorated with a stone temple, a coincidence with the style of the Central American architecture is apparent in the unusually heavy roof rising above a building which is low and narrow in comparison with the main mass of the erection; the impression of heaviness thus given is only dispelled by the prominent facade which crowns the whole.

Towns that Surprised the Spaniards

We should be the better able to decide how far the Nahua peoples succeeded in independently developing their highest civilisation and their artistic style after the Spanish arrival if more extensive ruins had been left of those great towns which the astonishment of the conquerors has painted for us in such brilliant

colours, at the time when a systematic examination of them was at length undertaken. The few antiquities that have been found upon these ancient centres of progress are so little consonant with the glowing descriptions of the conquistadores that we must either suppose their surprise

Sacred Town of the Nahua Races

led them into considerable exaggeration, or we must assume that a large portion of the ornamental buildings was constructed of far more perishable material than was the case elsewhere. Of the ruined sites of pure Nahuatlac origin only two are worth particular consideration, namely, Teotihuacan and Xochicalco.

Teotihuacan is a striking example, clearly demonstrating how short was the historical recollection of the different Nahua royal families in spite of all the long genealogies that have been put forward. This town has already become mythical to the generation with which the conquerors came into contact, and yet for centuries it had been the religious centre and the sacred town for the Nahua races of the tableland of Anahuac, even as Mecca is for the Mohammedans, or Jerusalem for the Christians. Our historical sources give us no information as to whether it played any part in politics under the most ancient Chichimec dominion; but they ascribe its foundation to the remotest antiquity; they put it

forward consistently and invariably as the holiest and most venerated of temples, with the most influential priesthood. The question may be left undecided as to whether the modern designations of the most important pyramids of Teotihuacan—as “the hill of the sun,” “the hill of the moon,” etc.—have been justified by archæological inquiry; at any rate, the name “path of the dead” is correct for the long range of little hills which stretches out behind the larger pyramids.

The Striking Pyramids at Teotihuacan

Teotihuacan was, like Mitla, not only a place of pilgrimage for the living, but also a sacred place, in which to be buried was to be sure of salvation. Even in the most recent times the neighbourhood of the ruins has been an inexhaustible hunting-ground for the little pots and clay figures which formed the offerings with which the dead were usually committed to the earth. Moreover, the other names mentioned are in entire accord with the ancient Nahua civilisation.

The Nahua religion was founded upon those startling manifestations of Nature which have struck the imagination of men in every part of the world. Nature-worship, under later influences, was wholly changed to an anthropomorphic realisation of religious conceptions, and by degrees many accessory notions fastened themselves around individual divinities. Yet, almost without exception, the gods of the different Nahuatlac nations can be traced back to particular phenomena of Nature. Even Huitzilopochtli, the fearful war-god of the Aztecs, whose worship was accompanied by a shedding of human blood that has never been equalled elsewhere, originally sprang from an entirely inoffensive conception of Nature.

He is the incarnation of the sun's beneficent power, which in the early spring begins a fruitful reign, and in the autumn fades away and dies before the burning heat and the drying winds. Legend

War God of the Aztecs

tells of his miraculous procreation, of his battle with the hostile twins, and of his death, proceeding in exactly the same manner as among the most different peoples in the Old and New Worlds. The sacred symbol of Huitzilopochtli is the colibri, the feathers of which decorated the god's left leg, according to the legend, to remind him of the fact that his mother Coatlicue received him in the form of a bunch of

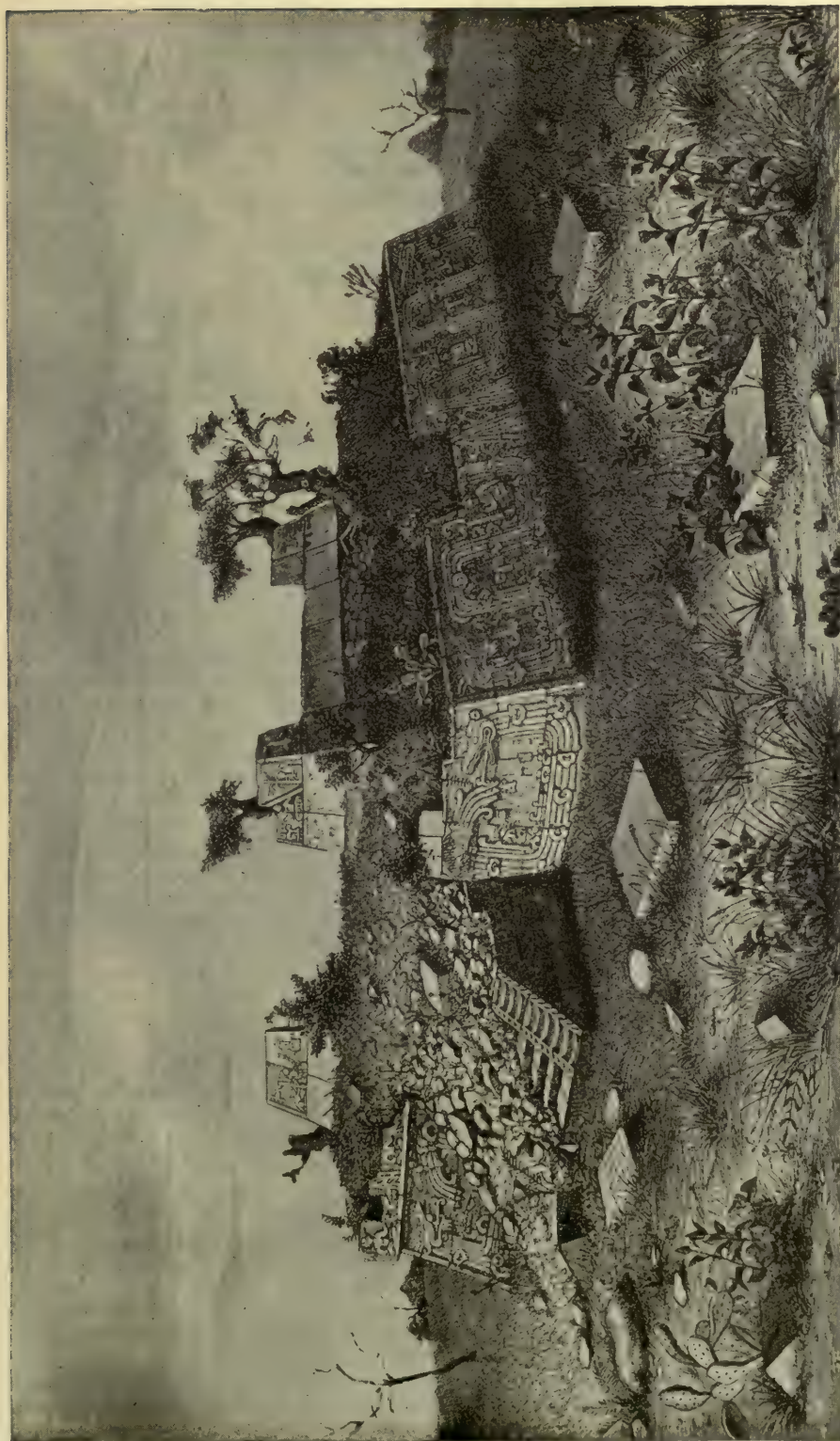
feathers which she carried unwittingly in her bosom. To the Mexican highlands, however, the colibri is what the swallow is to the temperate zones—the messenger who announces that Nature again awakes from her winter sleep. In autumn the image of the god was every year destroyed by a priest of another godhead by shooting at it with an arrow to the accompaniment of particular religious ceremonies; this was the end of the good part of the year, the return of which was celebrated in the spring as the return of Huitzilopochtli.

Under the form of the colibri he had also been the guide of the Aztecs on their migrations; he had continually called them on with his cry: “Tiui, tiui!” until they had come to the seat of their power. Here was the first impulse to anthropomorphism; for along with the bird, the image of the god and his representatives, the priests, had accompanied the people. These conceptions then became so confused that the belief finally arose that Huitzilopochtli was only a casual historical personality who had been exalted to the height of a racial god. Human sacrifices

The Nahua People's Chief God

played an essential part in all Nahuatlac worship; but the great extent to which they were carried in the Aztec worship of Huitzilopochtli arose from the unusually ferocious disposition of the Nahua national character.

The real chief god of the Nahua people is Tezcatlipocá. He is much more easily recognisable as an incarnation of the sun, and this not in its beneficial character as the bringer of all good, of light and warmth and fruitfulness, but also in its dangerous and destructive power, as hot drought and devouring fire. In its first character Tezcatlipocá was no doubt originally to the Nahua that which Kukulkan-Quetzalcoatl had been to the Maya people—the father of civilisation and culture. But when in the course of time the worship of the feathered snake as Quetzalcoatl made its way among the Nahua, then the legend began to be formed of the enmity between these two divinities; with a recollection of the previous power of Tezcatlipocá, the legend ends with a victory of this god over the foreign intruder, but shows him more and more in the light of a hostile, cruel god, while all the ideas concerning beneficent kindly powers group themselves around Quetzalcoatl, notwithstanding his defeat.



RUINS OF THE PYRAMID STEPS OF XOCHICALCO IN THE DISTRICT OF CHOLULA IN CENTRAL AMERICA

The ruins of Xochicalco, shown in the above illustration, are the remains of an extensive fortified position. Investigations have shown that the pyramid consisted only of a foundation, and of a temple which rose thereon and was perhaps unroofed, its sloping outer walls giving the appearance of a second pyramid. The whole building was overlaid with large, highly sculptured plates of trachyte, while the space within was filled with rubble. On the western side a flight of steps, now largely ruined, led up to the temple entrance, while the entire exterior of the building was adorned with rich decorative work, which covered the sloping walls of the two pyramidal erections, and also the horizontal frieze which lay between them.

The numerous gods of the beneficent powers of Nature and of the fruitful soil are a peculiarity of the Nahua religion. On the one hand they show the important influence of animism on the conceptions of Nahua mythology ; upon the other hand they make it evident how important was the part that agriculture played in the

Influence of Agriculture on the Peoples life of these peoples at the time when their conceptions of the gods were coming into existence. In this there is matter for surprise, inasmuch as in later historical times we meet with individual Nahua races upon a lower plane of civilisation.

A confusion of the divinities of different races had unmistakably taken place in a considerable portion of their mythology as it existed at the time of the Spanish conquest and has come down to us. Every people that rose to an important position in this civilisation contributed its own national divinities to the common stock of conceptions ; in worship and legend it created for them an important position, but side by side with their worship it worshipped and preserved all the more ancient deities. This is the simplest mode of explaining the extraordinary number of the gods in the Aztec Olympus, which the ancient historians have also described with expressions of astonishment.

After the power of the sun, which warms the earth and makes it fruitful and flourishing, the most important element of the Mexican highland climate was the rain. The success of every crop depended entirely upon the opportuneness and the sufficiency of this heavenly gift. The old historical sculptures of the different Nahua races of the east often describe the pregnant effects upon the general life of the people consequent on years of drought.

Hence we need not be surprised if the gods of water, of moisture, and of the clouds that pour forth rain, take a significant place in the national worship.

Tlaloc the God of Rain There are but few divinities of which we have so many and such extensive sculptures as of Tlaloc, the god of rain. He

was depicted in a peculiar position, semi-recumbent, with the upper part of the body raised upon the elbows, and the knees half-drawn up, perhaps with the intention of symbolising the fructifying influence of moisture upon the earth. By his side there was also a goddess with similar essential characteristics ; as a

symbol of fruitfulness she had presented him with numerous children. In addition to this, the fruitfulness of the soil was represented by a large number of independent divinities, for the most part of the female sex. Coatlicuë, who had brought up Huitzilopochtli, as being the mother of the colibri, was the goddess of flowers and fruit. The legend of the Aztec goddess of the fruitful corn-land, Centeotl, was especially detailed. In the narrower sense she represents—and to a larger extent than Xilonen, who appears as her daughter—the maize, the staple food of the Americans, the yellow colour of which was sacred to her. The fact that the maize plays a large part in the hieroglyphic writing of both the Maya and the Nahua testifies to the importance of this grain in the domestic economy of ancient America.

As the goddess of fruitfulness, Centeotl is also the protector of women in childbirth ; in spite of this her worship was accompanied with far more human sacrifices than were customary for all the remaining Nahua divinities. The idea which runs throughout the Aztec sacrifice

The Sacred Town of the God of Death—namely, that the victim, even before his death, by being dedicated to the god, becomes a part of the god and is one with him, is especially to be recognised in her worship ; in this the numerous female victims received a share of the reverence paid to the goddess in a complicated ceremonial which took place before their death.

The god of death has already appeared among the Zapotecs ; his sacred town, Yopaa (or Yapoo), became famous under its Mexican title, Mitla. Mitla is a popular reduction of the form Mictlan, and is at once the name both of the god of death and of his kingdom. He also is accompanied by a female goddess, easily to be recognised in the pictorial representations of Mitla by the invariable death-mask with its prominent row of teeth. As in the case of most peoples, the conception of death is connected with the ideas of the north and of darkness. His kingdom is situated in everlasting darkness within the earth ; his worship was carried on by the priests at night, clothed in black or in dark-coloured raiment.

According to Aztec ideas the kingdom of death was not the inevitable end of all life. The common herd—that is, every-body who had not been able during his

life upon earth to make good his claim to a better lot—found his way to Mictlan sooner or later. It was not, however, as in the Christian hell, a life of endless torture which was there prepared for the departed. The journey was certainly long and surrounded with every kind of danger. For this reason they never forgot to bury food, drink, and all kinds of amulets—especially strips of aloe paper—together with the corpse; but of the final fate of the dead man, who passed after all his journeyings into the ninth division of the lower world, the Mexicans themselves could give no adequate account.

Far different was the fate of those who, according to the conceptions of these peoples, had shown particular merits in

upon the most important festival of their gods in order to be witnesses of his honour. There came into the kingdom of Tlaloc not only those who were sacrificed to him, but also all those who were drowned or struck by lightning. The manner of their death was a sign that the god loved them and took them to himself. The highest heaven—for the heaven also rose in nine divisions above the earth—was that of the sun and his incarnations Huitzilopochtli, Tezcatlipocá, and Quetzalcoatl.

Hither came the souls of the kings and the mighty, of the priests and the nobles, who had been able during their earthly life to approach more nearly to the gods than common men; but, above all, the souls of those went to the sun who



COLLECTION OF MASKS AND HEADS FOUND AT TEOTIHUACAN, IN MEXICO

life or death. All the offerings brought to the gods entered, as we know, into immediate and close connection with the god-head; this connection was naturally continued in the future life, where such victims shared in the joys of heaven, in the service and the company of their gods.

The nature of these pleasures had been fully detailed for us in the case of those who entered into connection with Tlaloc. They went up to the summits of the highest mountains, the abode of the clouds, where a splendid garden awaited them, in which all the waters of the world had their source and cooled and refreshed the whole neighbourhood. There they lived among everlasting feasts and games, and could even descend again to the earth

had fallen in battle; and by these means many were able to lay claim to the heaven from which they would have been naturally excluded. Hither, too, came all those who had been sacrificed to the sun-gods as prisoners of war or had fallen in religious struggles; and this conviction of the meritorious nature of death in battle contributed not a little, as among the Mohammedans, to nourish the warlike spirit of these peoples. Finally, there came to the sun the souls of all women who had died in childbirth. There they all carried on a life of unending pleasure; with song and dance they accompanied the sun on his course; and when he sank in the west, in holy sleep, they renewed their strength to begin their work anew upon the morrow.

As we see, the religion of the Nahua peoples was by no means without its mild and kindly side. Their peculiar conception of the consubstantiation of the victim with the divinity deprived human sacrifice of much of its native horror, and the desire to win a life of everlasting joy induced many to offer themselves as willing victims to the god. The continued

Willing Victims to the Gods practice of cannibalism rested upon a similar conception. By tasting the victim, which had become to some extent divine, the eater of it also shared in the godhead ; similarly, with certain ceremonies, an image of the god which was not offered in sacrifice, but formed of eatable material, was broken and consumed by the worshippers. The greater refinement of manners which the advance of civilised development brought to many of the Nahua races may also have had a share in opposing the horrible human sacrifices.

When the Aztecs first invaded the particular district of the Nahua peoples they had but little civilisation but were a race of bold warriors of great physical development. In the district of the lakes of Chalco, Tezcuco, and Zumpango they found other races springing from the same stock who had developed a highly cultured civilisation as a result of centuries of residence. Here, as everywhere, civilised progress had not made these races either stronger or more capable of resistance ; and the attacking Aztecs, though of similar origin to the other nations, saw in their refinement a falling away from the old customs—a degeneration. Their consciousness of their superiority, the success that invariably attended their efforts, were to them proofs of the good-will of the gods, who preferred to be worshipped in the old fierce manner rather than with the modern milder cult ; and by degrees this idea tended more and more to bring back the dreadful form of worship. The

Wide Range of the Aztec Power Aztec Power extended over countries containing the most different peoples, who had been more or less subjugated ; from these their religious ideas led them to exact that awful tribute which made them hated by every nation that was dependent on them.

These peculiar circumstances were neither of long historical duration nor very widely spread, but have none the less greatly contributed to throw back our

knowledge of the preceding history of the Central American district, and to spread abroad false ideas concerning it. The chief task, at the moment, for Mexican archæology is to distinguish what is transitory and isolated from what is characteristic and universal.

The name Teotihuacan, representing the company of the Nahua gods, leads us naturally to the consideration of their religious conceptions ; similarly, the name Xochicalco, the last of the ruined towns that we need mention, affords an excellent opportunity for some remarks upon Nahua art. In their general character the ruins of Xochicalco are very similar to those in the district of the Totonacs. Spurs running out into the plain from the main mountain range have been made defensible by stonework and trenches on every side ; and these works of art are erected in terrace-fashion over a considerable extent of the mountain side. In the immediate neighbourhood of these there seems to have been an ancient settlement, a village or a town ; but the fortified space itself contained only temples and palaces and the dwellings of the

Temple of the Flower Goddess garrison, and served as a refuge for the inhabitants of the place in time of danger. Within the fortifications, though not on the summit of the hill, stands the temple pyramid which certainly gave the name to the place—for Xochicalco means “in the house of flowers.” There stood a house of flowers, the temple of the flower goddess, Xochiquetzal. In spite of the destruction to which it has been subjected in the course of centuries, this building is still one of the finest that has been discovered upon American soil. Ancient chronicles would have us believe that at the time of its completion the temple pyramid of Xochicalco had five storeys ; examinations of the position have proved that it never had more than one, and that the storey which can now be seen. Upon this, following the sloping rise of the pyramid, a building without a roof, running round three sides of the pyramid, but open in front, contained a sacred temple space, but was not itself a properly enclosed temple. This particular form of building is certainly connected with the worship of the Nahua peoples, whose religious ceremonies were almost entirely carried on under the open heaven and in the full light of day.



THE CHICHIMEC SUPREMACY NAHUA DOMINION IN LEGEND AND HISTORY

IT was within the boundaries of the civilisation described that the history of the Nahua peoples was developed. If we would pass a right judgment upon this history, we must, above all things, keep one point in view—the extreme narrowness of the conditions within which the early ancient history of Mexico was brought to a close.

The limits of the older historical traditions nowhere overpass the mountain range which on almost every side surrounds the valley of Mexico proper; places like Tula and Tulancingo, only a few miles distant from the central point of Nahua history, the Lake of Tezcuco, are lost in avenues of distance. The main portions of those peoples who spoke the Nahua language were entirely unknown to this tradition; in the last century, at the time when the Aztec warlike expeditions penetrated into more remote districts, one or two names of individual kings are mentioned.

The Seat of Empires and Dominions

The district in which the ancient Mexican history ran its course according to tradition is little more than 6,500 square miles in area. Separated by a distance of but a few miles were here situated the capitals of all the states which succeeded to the empire of the district of Mexican civilisation during the last century of the ancient régime, and it is these towns which the Spanish historians describe as the seat of so many empires and dominions.

According to tradition the oldest inhabitants of Anahuac are the Olmecs—or Ulmecs—and the Xicalancs. These apparently were regarded as the giant people the conquest of whom cleared the way for the settlements of the Nahua race; more often, however, the Olmecs and Xicalancs are considered as the conquerors of the giants, and as the founders of the oldest sacred towns Teotihuacan and Cholula. That these names were invariably used to designate the Nahua peoples at large is

proved by the fact that their names are always to be found in that district whither the seven races were led who left their common home, the seven caves of Chicomoztoc, in order to seek the promised land. The Olmecs are said to have been accompanied on their migrations by the Zapotecs and Mixtecs; to these are

The Olmecs Settle in Anahuac

occasionally added the Totonacs, and even the Huastecs, who spoke a Maya dialect. By this we may understand that the settlement of the Olmecs in Anahuac was supposed to be contemporaneous with the settlement of the other people of the same race who did not form the focus of the Nahua interests; that is, the people with whom we meet as intruding upon and shattering the Maya civilisation. Beyond this, tradition has nothing to say of the Olmecs and Xicalancs; no royal name, no event, was preserved in their history. But the fact that they were closely connected with the seat of the highest and most ancient priestly knowledge shows that we must not think of them as a rude hunting tribe, but that their arrival marked an epoch of civilisation for the highland of Anahuac.

The next group of Nahua races that found their way into Anahuac and became of historical importance were the Chichimecs. The ancient historians employed this name in a double sense. In its general meaning it denotes the whole group of the later Nahua people; in this sense our historical sources speak of the Teo Chichimecs—the inhabitants of the district of Tlaxcala—the Toltec Chichimecs, the Colhua Chichimecs, and the Aztec Chichimecs. In this case the name

Races of Nahuac Origin

means neither more nor less than those peoples who were of true Nahuac origin and belonged to a great group of Nahuac-speaking races; these races were called savages—this is the sense of the word—when other related races had already undergone the influence of civilisation, and

so had grown out of their ancient national characteristics. These changes took place under the influence of a foreign nationality—that of the Maya, as we already know; hence the name Chichimec gained the meaning of “unadulterated,” “pure,” and in this sense it was a term applied to all the Nahua peoples who could claim purity of origin. We learn that no individual Nahua race was originally called by this name from the fact that the Teo Chichimecs, the Toltecs, the Colhua, the Aztecs, but never the Chichimecs, are mentioned as having come among the seven races from the caves of Chicomoztoc.

Emperor of the Chichimecs In spite of this, in the course of time, and as a result of long traditional transmission, the name Chichimec came to be the designation of a race, or, more properly, of a certain body politic. For a time this body must have played an important part among the peoples of Anahuac. We have mention of kings of the Toltecs, of the Colhuas, and of the Aztecs; but in the case of the Chichimecs an emperor is mentioned, and the title Chichimecatl Tecuhtli—“the lord of the Chichimecs”—was the highest to which a governor of the different Nahua states could lay claim.

Eleven kings, including Chichimecatl, had apparently already reigned over this people when the Toltecs of Tula sent an embassy to the Chichimec court and offered the government of their country to the king's second son; there is here a vague recollection of some family connection between the Chichimecs and Toltecs. The first Chichimec prince who is said to have ruled after the fall of the Toltec kingdom—the king Xolotl—is said to have had a reign of nearly 300 years. The artistically conceived system of ancient Mexican chronology has been traced far into the past by native writers who were influenced by Christianity, and for this reason they went back only far enough to make the chronologies of the Old and New Worlds coincide, and to connect their people with the confusion of tongues at the Tower of Babel. The chronologies proposed for the history of the old kingdoms have no scientific value whatever.

Legendary Kings in Anahuac The tradition of numerous peoples of Anahuac preserved the legend of a long row of kings or princes who are said to have ruled the land; and in many cases these genealogies are connected with the gods, or include such gods in the genealogical tree. Certain authors like Ixtlilxochitl, and probably many before him of whose writings he availed himself, arranged a number of such dynasties in a vertical line instead of in parallel columns; however, by their means we have been able to trace back Mexican history right to the beginning of the Christian era, or even further.

The kingdom of Toltec civilisation is one of the unhistoric legends which originated in the manner we have described; its legendary source is betrayed by the fact that its kings constantly bear the names of gods, and that the town Tollan (Tula), from which the name Toltec is supposed to have been derived, can scarcely have been the capital of a Toltec kingdom. In the Toltec legend is reflected a recollection of the historical importance of a state the central point of which was Culhuacan.

This cannot be traced back into those remote times in which the Toltec kingdom has been placed, but belongs to an historical period; at that time a large number of other Chichimec states, together with Tezcuc, had a flourishing existence, and then it was that the youngest branch of the Nahua race, the Aztec, began to attract attention to itself. Such knowledge as has come down to us of the ancient kingdom—extending over a period from the sixth century, in which tradition places its beginnings, up to the thirteenth century, in which its historical period begins—is of importance in only this respect: it shows us in abstract form, little influenced by the realities of the time, those conceptions and ideas which the Nahua people themselves held concerning their common civic life. Thus far the legends throw light on the internal history of the race, both in ancient and in more modern times.

Flourishing Chichimec Communities The tradition of the oldest times, speaking as it does of numerous reigning deities, would of itself show us the important influence of the priestly caste among the older Nahua races, even if we had no examples from historical times of the energy and tenacity with which the priests struggled against the inevitable inroads of a secular power. The gods, partly under their own sacred names, and sometimes appearing as princes who ruled for centuries and were canonised

after their death, are the constant guides of the Nahua races on their migrations, or laid the foundation of particular prosperity and unusual growth during their periods of settled existence; this fact proves that theocracy and a rule of priests under the special protection of heaven was a typical characteristic among the Nahua, and also among the Maya peoples, for a long period of their development.

It was at this time that most of the great temple pyramids were founded; and their foundation under such a government explains to us why tradition has considered them, for the most part, anterior to the founding of a secular state, or has ascribed them to some earlier people. As long as nations of a common origin and similar religious conceptions were in exclusive contact with one another, so long were the priests able to keep the peace without great difficulty. There was certainly rivalry among the priests of divinities belonging to different races, and this now and then led to those animosities which the legend represents as the battles of the gods among themselves;

Gods Fighting Among Themselves

at the same time peace and prosperity were well-nigh universal and gave every necessary encouragement to a rapidly spreading civilisation. But the spread of this civilisation, however, threatened the priestly states with a twofold danger. Among their subjects there were to be found now and then certain people outside of the sacerdotal caste who realised the true state of affairs and objected to a monopoly of profit on the part of the priests. Moreover, increasing prosperity invited attacks from less civilised neighbours, with which the priestly power alone could not cope.

Thus there grew up, side by side with the priests, the class of "caciques," the military power. The importance of this class increased in proportion to the growth of danger from without, and to the value of their services in repelling it, until at length the military leaders recognised that they were indispensable and declined to surrender to the priests that power which they had with difficulty acquired. Civilisation thus enters upon a fresh struggle—that of the secular and religious powers. At the outset the priestly caste often succeeded in frightening their superstitious people with threats of divine wrath; every defeat in battle, every

failure of the crops, every devastating plague, enabled them for a time to keep the balance of power between the secular and the religious forces. Here we have the cause of those repeated long interregnums with which we meet at the beginnings of almost every dynasty. In many cases the secular power attempted

Secular and Religious Powers in Conflict

to win over the religious power and to reconcile it to the new state of things by means of liberal concessions; but the natural result everywhere came to pass. The military class, when once they had gained the upper hand, concentrated the power more and more in themselves, declined to resign it in times of peace, and by degrees created a military nobility which acted as a counterpoise to the priestly power and invariably led to the establishment of a dynasty in which succession was regulated either by election or by inheritance.

Among the related peoples these changes were accomplished in a gradual and uniform manner. The mere fact that one little race had shaken off the priestly yoke and chosen a king for itself demanded a similar development on the part of its neighbours, and at an early period the Caciques became connected by a community of interest with the dynasty, both in their political and family relations. Only when their common enemy, the priestly caste, had finally been forced into a secondary position did the desire for empire on the part of the secular rulers become obvious. This ambition led to the wars of conquest among the petty princes who from time to time rose from one or other of the nations of Anahuac to be a dominant power.

The nations of Mexico were incompetent to organise a large empire, and, like almost all the peoples of the New World, remained thus divided up until the Spanish arrival. Even the greatest monarchs exercised lordship over only the

Mexico's Divided Nations

immediate neighbourhood of their residences. The outlying districts, even when closely connected with the central state, were invariably ruled by feudal princes, whose fidelity was not proof against many external temptations. If the ruling monarch were strong enough to subdue his disobedient vassals, then his kingdom not only extended over his own territories, but included those lying without it; but, the larger the

number of these subject kings, the greater became the danger that this loosely constructed political organisation might entirely collapse. As a matter of fact, it is in this fashion that one empire after another, Chichimec, Colhua, and Tezcucan, came into existence and fell to pieces again; and if the Spaniards at the beginning of the sixteenth

century had not brought the whole system to an end, the Aztec empire would undoubtedly have suffered a like fate.

Naturally, under these circumstances, the yoke of the central government was generally light. When a disobedient vassal was subdued, or when the king with his army passed through the subject province to make fresh conquests, then his hand was heavy upon the land, and the life and property of his people were at his disposal.

But the contributions which in time of peace were sent up to the seat of power in acknowledgment of subjection were in few cases more than nominal gifts, and were generally only a half-voluntary tribute, rather symbolic than real. So easy was this rule that the lords of neighbouring, and also of more distant, districts occasionally preferred to recognise the dominion of some other prince, and to pay him a voluntary tribute, in order to assure themselves against the possibility of his forces being turned against themselves. This is the explanation of those kingdoms, nominally of large extent, being so often overthrown by a mere handful of people in a very short space of time.

For as soon as the prestige of the king, which was founded upon the imagination of his people, had been shattered, then all who had paid him tribute shook off his feeble yoke and declared themselves independent until a new potentate from another race succeeded in making himself a terror in the land. Although numbers of princely houses imagined, as we have

said, that they could trace their genealogy uninterruptedly through six or seven centuries, yet it is only at the beginning of the twelfth century that history

begins. At that time a number of so-called kingdoms were already in existence in Anahuac; among these the Chichimec kingdom, with its capital Tenayocan, on the west side of the lake of Tezcuco, held the leading position. The next in importance was the kingdom

of Acolhua, with its capital Culhuacan, lying to the north of the lake of Chalco; it had apparently inherited the Toltec civilisation and was the chief centre of the culture of the time. Its ruling dynasty traced its origin to Topiltzin, the last Toltec king. In the middle of the century this line of kings had to struggle against an unexpected attack from the Chichimec power, and to make way for a dynasty from that race, which paid a nominal allegiance to the lords of Tenayocan.

Atzacaputzalco, Coatlican, and Xaltocan are named as being other kingdoms under the protection of the one we have mentioned; all these places are to be found in the immediate neighbourhood of the central lakes. Moreover, the states of Tlazatlan, Zacatlan, and Tenamitec are also named as being countries which were subject to the authority of the Chichimec dynasty, so that this Chichimec power seems to have extended nearly over the whole valley of Mexico. All these principalities had made long strides in civilisation, an advance generally attributed by the chroniclers to Toltec influences. The

invasion of fresh Nahua races still living in unreclaimed savagery threatened this civilisation with unmistakable dangers towards the end of the century. The Tecpanecs and Chalca obviously were sprung from Chicomoztoc—"the seven caves"; the consciousness of their relationship with the Nahua races already settled in the valley of Mexico had never been lost, and consequently Tollan also appears as one of the resting-places of their migration.

Then they appear in Anahuac proper, at Chapultepec, but in spite of their numbers they do not seem to have pressed the Chichimecs either very long or very hardly. A short time later they formed a political community completely organised in the most southerly portion of the lake district, and here the Chalca states attained an importance in the next century before which the fame of the Chichimecs and of Acolhua began to pale.

At that time also the youngest of the Nahua races—the Aztecs—had appeared in the lake district; their own traditions relate that they had been the last to leave the "seven caves," and that their migrations had lasted longer and their wanderings been more extensive than those of the other races related to them. At that time

they were entirely under the government of their priests, who carried the image of their national god, Huitzilopochtli, upon a litter before them, and issued their orders as commands from heaven. The race cannot have been numerous when it first obtained permission from the Chichimec lords to make a settlement in Chapultepec, but the addition of numerous related tribes and the acquisition of friendly contingents from neighbouring towns increased their importance every year, and their warlike prowess began to make them famous—even notorious—in the unending wars of the different dynasties, in which they played a considerable part as allies of one or the other party.

Up to this point they had remained true to their institutions; in spite of all the chances of war, and the changes which it brought, the priests of Huitzilopochtli continued to hold the power. It was then that this god began to undergo a metamorphosis from the character of sun-god to that of war-god. But even the Aztecs could not resist the influence exercised upon them by the exigencies of their position and the example of

Aztecs' First Secular Monarch

neighbouring races; and in spite of the vigorous objections of the priesthood they chose their first secular monarch, Huitzilihuitl, about the year 1250. Like the princes of the neighbouring states he had a king's title and exercised a king's power within his own race, but he was not successful in founding an Aztec dynasty.

He had entered into an alliance with the Cacique of Zumpango against the Tecpanecs of Xaltocan, had started upon a campaign, but had only succeeded in exciting the opposition of the other Tecpanec princes to his Aztecs. As he declined to pay tribute to the Tecpanecatl Tecuhtli, the ruling monarch of the race who resided in Atzacaputzalco, he was attacked on every side by the subjects and the allies of the Tecpanecs, and after numerous losses and a vain attempt to summon to his aid the Chichimec king of Tezcucó, he was obliged to abdicate. The priestly caste again obtained the power and succeeded in making peace with their neighbours, though at the sacrifice of that independence which Huitzilihuitl had defended.

The ruling powers of Anahuac had meanwhile become more or less weakened; the Chichimec ruler, Tlotzin Pochotl, and his successor, Quinantzin, did not succeed

in keeping their territory intact. Their inclinations were rather towards arts of peace than feats of war. They had turned their attention chiefly toward the decoration of their capitals, and had neglected to protect their boundaries, so that the reins of power fell from their hands. The ties which bound the subject kings of

Atzacaputzalco, Xaltocan, and other states, to the central government grew looser and looser. Owing to the circumstances under which the Aztecs appear among these states, scarcely any traces are left of a defensive alliance between the Tecpanec states and the kingdom of the Chichimecs. The direction which their development took was largely influenced by the change of settlement from Tenayocan to Tezcucó under Quinantzin.

Tezcucó, under the preceding government, had become a dangerous rival of the old capital, while the Chichimec princes were devoting their attention to the decoration and adornment of their palaces and gardens. The government of the important province of Tezcucó fell into the hands of the presumptive successor of the emperor, Chichimecatl Tecuhtli. As governor, Quinantzin had already held a royal court in Tezcucó; while still in Tenayocan he had established his position as emperor, and had then entrusted the government of his present capital to another's hands and gone back to his chosen Tezcucó. In consequence of this change of capital from the western to the eastern side of the lake the whole Chichimec kingdom naturally enough gravitated in that direction.

At that time the boundaries of the Chichimec kingdom stretched far away over the valley to the east. Tlaxcala, Huexotzinco, and other states upon the eastern tableland, were then governed by princes of Chichimec race. But as the kingdom gained ground in the east it became en-

feeble on the west and abandoned the field to the Tecpanec states. The change of residence to

Tezcucó did not entirely commend itself to all the Chichimecs, and as Quinantzin could not rely on the fidelity of his satraps a great confederacy was soon formed against him, which was secretly fostered by the Tecpanecs and tended to the separation of the whole of the western portion of the kingdom of Tezcucó. Once again a Chichimec

state was formed about the ancient capital Tenayocan, in which a relation of Quinantzin usurped the title of Chichimecatl Tecuhtli. The emperor himself seemed little disturbed at this occurrence. He made sure of his power in the east; on the west he allowed things to take their course, as he was not strong enough to control them. The rival state was,

Chichimec Power Established however, of no long duration; within a short time the opposition king was attacked by the Tecpanecs, who had succeeded in bringing the Aztecs to their help. After the fall of Tenayocan the Chichimec power was firmly established in the western districts.

This state of affairs very soon after received the sanction of an international confederacy which was formed between the Tecpanec king of Atzacaputzalco, as emperor of all the Tecpanec states, and Quinantzin. To Quinantzin the Tecpanec king yielded the predominant position of Chichimecatl Tecuhtli, but by thus cleverly renouncing the appearance of power he gained a signal advantage in reality, for Quinantzin in return admitted all his claims to the ancient territory of the Chichimecs and confirmed him in their undisputed possession.

These battles had so entirely broken up and confounded every element in the Nahuatlac nationality that the new kingdoms were founded on a territorial far more than on a national basis. Thus we find Tezcuco the capital of districts that had been named by the different Nahua races. Tecpanecs, Aztecs, Colhua contributed at least as much to their population as did the Chichimecs and the eastern races.

The Aztecs were in the worst position; their habit of offering their services in war to the highest bidder, the wild ferocity with which they carried on their warfare, which had been the chief factor in forming their religion with its infamous sacrifices of human blood, made them the objects of universal hostility. The

The Aztec Race Broken up wars which ravaged the country on the north of the lake district at the end of the thirteenth or the beginning of the fourteenth century brought destruction upon their capital Chapultepec; and the Aztec race, like many another, was broken up and dispersed. Scattered companies of them entered again into the services of the neighbouring states as mercenaries, with the intention of gaining permission to

form fresh settlements as a reward for their prowess in war. But only two races—the Mexica and the Tlatelulca—kept their lineage sufficiently pure in the following ages to have a clear remembrance of their origin, until their turn for rule also came in the course of time. They had, however, much ground for thankfulness to the prince of Colhuacan, who had offered a refuge for their wanderings in Tizaapan or in Iztacalco.

The Tecpanecs had gained the chief advantage from the troubles of these times. The western portion of the lake of Zumpango from the north, as far as Chalco on the south, had become their almost undisputed territory. The eastern portion belonged similarly to the kings of Tezcuco. But the weak point of all these American states—their inability to organise a government over a large extent of country—became apparent here also. Atzacaputzalco, as the early centre of the whole Tecpanec kingdom, for some time retained considerable importance, and for a number of years its kings bore the title of Tecpanecatl Tecuhtli. But imperceptibly the

Centres of Tecpanec Government centre of gravity of the political world shifted more and more toward the south. While the ancient Culhuacan again flourished next to Atzacaputzalco and Tenayocan, and quickly surpassed them both in importance, Chalco, Tenanco, and Amequemecan rose in the south as fresh centres of Tecpanec government.

Circumstances threw the leadership into their hands when, about a century later, a common enemy of all the states of the lake district appeared in the Mexica people. At the time of their greatest development the Tecpanec states are said to have been no fewer than twenty-five in number; many of these were closely bound together by ties of relationship. A feeling of close connection was certainly alive among them all, and this sentiment became the more vigorous when the very existence of the race was threatened. But, in the meantime, individual Tecpanec kings had been fighting as furiously among themselves as the princes of the Chichimec race under similar circumstances had fought and were continuing to fight with all other kings.

In the first half of his reign, Quinantzin, the Chichimec emperor, was apparently indifferent to the loss of the western province of his kingdom; but he had not

THE CHICHIMEC SUPREMACY

finally renounced his claims upon it. For the time being he had concentrated all his powers on strengthening the newly formed kingdom on the eastern tableland. When signs of insurrection became visible even there, he met them with an unusual display of energy, and was generally able to restore order. When this was done he again turned his attention to the province he had lost. His first attack was upon the prince of Xaltocan, whose kingdom, owing to its inaccessible situation, had never been made tributary to the Tecpanecs. The well-organised forces of the united kingdom of Tezcuco easily overcame all attempts at resistance on the part of the Xaltocans.

After this victory the Tecpanec emperor did not think it expedient to allow the possession of this loosely connected province to be contingent upon the uncertain results of a war. With a view to strengthening this connection he offered peace and alliance to the Chichimecs, and declared himself ready to recognise their claims to the dominion of the whole lake district, and to acknowledge their overlordship, which was

Death of the Great King Quinantzin

in his case to be merely formal. Quinantzin was satisfied with this result. He allowed the Tecpanecs the possibility of pursuing their peaceful and statesman-like projects while he exercised at least a nominal suzerainty over a district which was far wider than any that his forefathers had possessed. When he died, in the year 1305, no less than seventy subject kings were present at the magnificent ceremonies which attended his burial in Tezcuco; no less than seventy kings paid homage to Techotl, the youngest son of the deceased monarch, whom he had nominated as his successor, for the elder brothers had lost all claims to the throne by participation in an attempt at revolt.

The most remarkable feature of the government of Techotl is that he first in Central America attempted to introduce a general change in the organisation of the states, which had hitherto been of a loose and wholly unstable character. Hitherto every subject king had reigned in his own province as free and unfettered as the Chichimecatl Tecuhtli himself had in his government of the central portion of the kingdom; so long as he paid the moderate tribute and in time of war offered no opposition to the passage of an army through his dominions, he might be sure

that no heavier burdens would be laid upon him by his feudal lord. Quinantzin's reign had repeatedly displayed the serious dangers to the continuance of a united kingdom which were involved in such a state of affairs. The old king himself had, by sternly suppressing any attempt at insubordination, done much to increase

Techotl's System of Government

the security of the political unity. Techotl energetically followed out these views. He contrived to gather most of the vassal kings together in Tezcuco, and to keep them in his immediate neighbourhood, under the honourable pretext of forming a council of state; their representatives, who ruled in their places, owed even greater allegiance to their feudal master.

Moreover, a new division of the country was arranged, the old racial boundaries were definitely abolished, the number of districts for the purposes of government was increased almost threefold, and thereby the danger that local insurrections might spread far and wide was largely diminished. Finally, Techotl, by means of a number of ordinances that were binding throughout his realm, kindled a spirit of unity among his people.

All these arrangements could only have been valid for his dominions on the east of the lakes; the west, which was almost as closely united, though perhaps not so strictly organised, under the Tecpanec king Tezozomoc, was almost beyond the reach of any kind of aggression. The state of nominal vassalage which Quinantzin had established remained undisturbed under the rule of Techotl; but after an energetic and ambitious monarch, in the person of Tezozomoc, had ascended the Tecpanec throne the danger of rivalry between the Chichimec kingdom, now known as Acolhuacan, and the Tecpanec kingdom became gradually more threatening. It was under the son and successor of Techotl, the king Ixtlilxochitl, that the storm broke. The satraps

New King on Tecpanec Throne

whose powers had been limited by Techotl's reforms, and who entertained for him an animosity not difficult to comprehend, made all kinds of excuses to avoid taking part in his funeral ceremonies.

Their passive resistance was of little danger; more important was the attitude of the Tecpanecatl Tecuhtli. Tezozomoc openly declined to recognise the suzerainty of the young Chichimec prince, and was

unmistakably striving to throw off a yoke that had been sensibly relaxed. With the careless patience, which for generations was a striking characteristic of the Chichimec rulers, Ixtlilxochitl bore with the equivocal behaviour of his most powerful vassal. On the other hand, however, he appeared to be firmly deter-

Intrigues Against the King

mined to settle his dubious relations with the Tecpanec king in the spirit of his father's reforms. Tezozomoc met this straightforward policy with craft and dissimulation of every kind. As soon as Ixtlilxochitl threatened to enforce his demands, Tezozomoc declared himself ready to fulfil all claims.

But as soon as he had appeased him by a show of submission he declined to fulfil the responsibilities he had accepted, under pretexts of the most trivial kind. It was a mistake fraught with important consequences that Ixtlilxochitl permitted these intrigues to continue year by year. He shook the confidence of his own friends and allies, and gave his opponent time, not only to make proper preparations in every direction for a decisive conflict, but also to make allies of some of those vassals whose fidelity was weakening.

According to tradition, Tezozomoc, in three successive years, had sent a heavy tribute of raw cotton to Tezcucó, and had first requested, then required, and finally commanded that this tribute should be redelivered at Atzacaputzalco ready woven into stuff. Twice were his commands fulfilled; but the third time an embassy was returned to the effect that the Chichimec ruler had received the tribute with thanks, and would use it to arm his warriors, who were determined to punish their disobedient vassals.

Even then Ixtlilxochitl proceeded to wait for the attack of the Tecpanecs. Tezozomoc sent his army twice across the lake into

Tecpanecs Defeated in Battle

the district of Tezcucó, but twice suffered a heavy defeat at the hands of adversaries whose numbers continually increased. In spite of all this he unconditionally rejected all the offers of the Tezcucan emperor to make peace on condition of recognising his superiority, and now openly advanced the claim that the title of Chichimecatl Tecuhtli belonged to him, in the first place, as being the direct successor of the founder of the Chichimec empire, the king

Xolotl. In spite of this he would undoubtedly have been defeated if Ixtlilxochitl could have made up his mind to follow up with vigour the advantages he had won. Repeated victories brought to his side many of the little kings who had hitherto remained neutral; and many of the allies of Tezozomoc were beginning to weaken in their fidelity.

Thus when Ixtlilxochitl made his attack, he could easily collect a considerable army; and in the province of Tepotzotlan he won a brilliant victory against a hostile army of 200,000 men. It is difficult to understand how Ixtlilxochitl allowed himself to be again befooled by the cunning Tezozomoc. After a four months' siege the capital of Atzacaputzalco was incapable of offering further resistance. Tezozomoc agreed to an unconditional surrender and begged for pardon, appealing to the sentiment of kinship. Although he had been so many times deceived, Ixtlilxochitl was once again satisfied with mere promises. Without completing the work of conquest he withdrew his victorious army from the walls of his enemy's capital. This was a signal for a general collapse.

Conquering Chichimec Emperor

Expectation of booty or reward in some form or other had brought certain waverers to his side to fight against the dreaded Tecpanecs; but they had no idea of exposing themselves to the revenge of Tezozomoc, who had been left in possession of his princely power, without themselves gaining any corresponding advantage.

An ominous stillness greeted the Chichimec emperor when he returned to his capital. Reports soon began to come in that Tezozomoc was making fresh preparations; and when he at last invited the king and his son, Nezahualcoyotl, to come to Chiuhnaughtlan to receive his oath of allegiance, the king no longer dared to trust himself in the traitor's hands. But his prudence came too late. When Tezozomoc perceived that his cunning plan had been laid bare, he hastened to Tezcucó by forced marches. While defending his capital, Ixtlilxochitl was captured and expiated the many mistakes of his life with his death. His son and heir, Nezahualcoyotl, only with the greatest difficulty escaped the sentence of death which Tezozomoc, the newly crowned Chichimecatl Tecuhtli, passed upon him.



THE RISE OF THE AZTECS AND THE FORTUNES OF THE MEXICAN KINGDOMS

THE fall of the Chichimec kingdom of Acolhuacan took place in the year 1419. We must, however, go back for a century to pick up the threads required for the understanding of its further development. We have seen that the Mexica had been deprived of their refuge, Chapultepec, which they gained upon the change of the Chichimec capital to Tezcuco, and that it was with difficulty that they obtained from the Tecpanec ruler permission to settle elsewhere.

The priests may have explained their misfortunes as due to the wrath of the gods at the deposition of the theocracy and the choice of a king; at any rate, they did not succeed in regaining the favour of heaven for their people, though for a considerable time they had been in undisputed possession of power. While the Mexica were feared among all their neighbours for their plundering raids, they were constantly

The Mexica in Peace and War

sought for as allies in time of war. But in times of peace the chief anxiety of their neighbours was to keep these restless strangers as far off as possible. They probably then paid the Tecpanec princes an unusually heavy tribute, and submitted to a certain measure of degradation, for their presence was barely tolerated, and they were sent about from one settlement to another.

Thereupon Tenoch, a priestly guide of the Mexica, once again exhorted them to migrate in the name of the god Huitzilopochtli, and led the scanty remnants of his people forth from their flourishing towns into the marshy coast-land on the west of the lake of Tezcuco. There, being warned by an omen from heaven, he probably founded that town which in the course of time became the capital of the Aztec kingdom, Mexico-Tenochtitlan. Almost at the same time the related Tlatelulca withdrew from the tyrannical oppression of the Tecpanecs, and founded a second settlement in their immediate

neighbourhood, Tlatelulco, which later on became a keen rival of Tenochtitlan, but was at last outstripped by and incorporated into the rival town. This migration to Tenochtitlan, which is placed in the year 1325, had not gained independence for the Mexicans. There, too, they found themselves within the dominion of a

The Aztecs Strengthened by Fugitives

Tecpanec king, were obliged to obtain his permission to settle, and continued to owe him tribute. As they had fixed their capital at a distance and settled in an uncultivated district considered almost uninhabitable, they did, however, by degrees, free themselves from his crushing tyranny.

In spite of its unfavourable situation the sister town developed with unexpected rapidity. The Mexicans were not the only people who were trying to escape from the dominion which had so long oppressed them. The reforms of the Tezcucan kings were felt to be as unsatisfactory as the tyranny of the Tecpanecs, and from both kingdoms numerous fugitives streamed into the barren wilderness and were readily received by the Aztecs of Tenochtitlan and Tlatelulco, eager to increase their strength. Thus these towns entirely lost their national character, and their population was composed of elements more and more diverse. The new arrivals, while they gladly fell in with the civilisation and the customs of the ancient inhabitants, exerted a refining influence upon the harshness of the Aztec customs, began

Refining Influences on the Aztecs

to amalgamate the latter with their own institutions, and contributed in no small degree to soften the deep hatred with which the worshippers of Huitzilopochtli were regarded by all their neighbours. From the outset Tlatelulco far outstripped the neighbouring Tenochtitlan.

It was to Tlatelulco that the emigrants from the country of the Tecpanecs turned by preference, and we can easily understand that the relations of the ruling prince

gained concessions more easily than outsiders. Thus it was a special mark of favour that the king of Atzacaputzalco agreed to set up a member of his family as a feudal prince in Tlatelulco when the town was strong enough to demand a king of its own. On the other hand, numerous emigrants from Culhua turned their steps toward Tenochtitlan. The ancient Culhuacan capital had long ago obtained an almost independent position under the suzerainty of the Tecpanecs, and had repeatedly played an important part in the political history of the whole kingdom.

Internal dissensions had broken out at last somewhere about the time when the Mexicans had founded their new capital. Numerous peoples of the Culhua, who had been driven from their homes by that revolution, made their way to Tenochtitlan, where within a short time their nationality was more strongly represented than was that of the Aztecs. The newly founded state owed to these circumstances its first important revolution. Mexico had been founded under the guidance of the priests; the name of Tenochtitlan (the town of Tenoch) was derived from the priestly guide who had led the people thither. But the traditions of centuries had made the Culhua accustomed to a monarchy; and though in religious matters they yielded to the custom of the country, in temporal affairs they declined to submit

permanently to priestly government. Several members of the old royal family had come to Mexico among the fugitives.

A compromise between the old inhabitants and the new colonists finally led to the choice of a king in the town of Tenoch, and the colonist element was sufficiently strong to bring about the election of

Mexico Acamapichtli, the son of the king who bore the name of **a Vassal** Culhuacan. After the fall of his **Kingdom** father's dynasty he had fled to Tezcuco, and had there married a princess of Chichimec race, Ilancueitl. The connection of these dynasties has an extraordinarily strong influence upon all the later history of the Aztec kingdom of Tenochtitlan, and we have here the primary explanation of many facts that would be wholly unintelligible if we were to consider the town and the kingdom only from the Aztec point of view.

Mexico now remained, in spite of its friendly relations with Tezcuco, a Tecpanec vassal kingdom. Acamapichtli was obliged to obtain the confirmation of his election in Atzacaputzalco; it was in the service of Tezozomoc that the young king of Mexico made his early expeditions, which were so successful that he soon became highly respected among the vassal kings. The first campaign that he undertook in the Tecpanec service was in a southerly direction against the Chalca.



AZTEC BRIDGE OF PETRIFIED WOOD ACROSS THE TEMASOPE RIVER IN MEXICO



A PRESENT-DAY RAILWAY THROUGH A PREHISTORIC CUTTING

This illustration depicts a striking section of the Mexican Nochistlan railway, which, according to a recent report, rejoices in ebony sleepers, and ballast of silver ore drawn from prehistoric and disused mines beside the track, these ancient mines being of Aztec origin, as is also the remarkable hand-hewn cutting shown in the picture.

These people, although related to the Tecpanecs, had founded a kingdom on the southern shore of the Lake Tezcuco, and on the lake which they called the Lake of Chalco. This state had grown so large that it had split up into numerous vassal states. The Mexican chronicles of these wars describe them as the exploits of the Mexican kings only, but, until the fall of the Tecpanec kingdom, the kings of Mexico acted only as allies in these wars.

Acamapichtli died in the year 1403, without having left any commands as to the succession; this fact probably marks the ascendancy of the priestly caste, which was once again making despairing efforts to restore the theocracy. But

The Early Races at War

foreign elements, accustomed to a dynasty of monarchs, had already become too strong; though the priestly caste succeeded in making a succession dependent upon a new election, they could not prevent the choice from falling upon the son of Acamapichtli, Huitzilihuitl. We are particularly told of him, too, that he was obliged to obtain a confirmation of his election from the Tecpanec ruler. As subject to Tezozomoc he took part, in the following year, in the war which led to the

overthrow of Ixtlilxochitl and of the Chichimec kingdom, although this king was closely connected with him by his marriage with his sister. Even allowing for the exaggerations of the chroniclers, we see very plainly that the kings of Mexico had become at that date most important vassals, from the fact that the king of Tlatelulco was commander-in-chief of Tezozomoc, and therefore also of the troops of Huitzilihuitl. These two kings did not live to the end of the wars. The ruler of Tlatelulco fell in one of the battles in which the Tezcucans were victorious; Huitzilihuitl died in 1417 in Tenochtitlan, the town which he had striven to extend without and to organise within. The result of his efforts was that his half-brother Chimalpopoca succeeded to the throne unopposed, representing his country upon the fall of Ixtlilxochitl.

We must suppose that it was only by force of circumstances that Huitzilihuitl and Chimalpopoca continued to fight on the side of Tezozomoc, for they had far greater advantages to expect from the success of Ixtlilxochitl, who was their friend and connection by marriage, than from the victory of their tyrannical emperor. They could not, however, have given the

Tezcanec king the smallest grounds for suspicion. When this monarch proposed to increase and organise his kingdom by uniting it with the Tezcucan territories, the Mexican Chimalpopoca was regarded as one of the six subject kings, together with the rulers of Chalco, Tlatelulco, Acolman, Coatlichan, and Huexotla.

Tezozomoc's intention to make his kingdom more secure both within and without was only incompletely realised. The conditions imposed upon the vassal kings were most oppressive; two-thirds of the income from their provinces they were obliged to send to the king, retaining only a third for themselves. Consequently they felt the unjust burden of this tribute far more than the honour of their promotion, and they expressed their dissatisfaction with no attempt at concealment. The newly crowned Chichimecatl Tecuhtli was not successful in obtaining recognition of his power throughout the kingdom of Ixtlilxochitl.

The distant provinces on the north and east, however, gladly seized the opportunity of refusing all payment of tribute and declaring their independence; and so strong was the hostility of the Tlascalans against Tezozomoc that they received the exiled heir of Tezcucan, the prince Nezahualcoyotl, and offered him a refuge in their mountains until the intervention of the Mexican king Chimalpopoca was successful in obtaining the repeal of the sentence of death that had been passed upon him. Tezozomoc was already advanced in years when he united the whole of Anahuac under his rule; he enjoyed the fruits of victory for eight more years before his death, and named his son Tejahuh as his successor. But by this act he sowed the seeds of dissension in both his family and his kingdom. Among all the sons of Tezozomoc, Maxtla, who had been appointed regent of Coyohuacan, was unquestionably the one who was most like his father, though he had not inherited his tenacity and his calmness in addition to his energy, bravery, and

cunning. He took it as an insult that he should have to content himself with a second place in his father's kingdom, and the indifference of Tejahuh enabled him, after a few months, to drive his brother from the throne, and to set himself up as Chichimecatl Tecuhtli, the king of the whole of Anahuac. This revolution was bloodless, but not so its results.

A Bloodless Revolution in Anahuac The vassal kings had already borne the yoke of the aged Tezozomoc, the hero of a hundred fights, with the greatest impatience, and they considered it wholly intolerable to become the vassals of Maxtla, a young prince who, in his own government in Coyohuacan, had only succeeded in making himself thoroughly hated by his subjects and the neighbouring princes.

It was by an act of violence against the legitimate ruler that he had thrust himself into his place. The kings of Mexico and Tlatelulco placed themselves at the head of the dissatisfied subjects; Tejahuh had fled to Tenochtitlan, and so it was there arranged to surprise Maxtla at a festival, to overthrow him, and to reinstate Tejahuh. But the conspiracy was betrayed, and the victim of it was not Maxtla, but Tejahuh. Maxtla did not know with which of the



A CHARACTERISTIC EXAMPLE OF AZTEC CARVING

This colossal head carved in stone is part of an Aztec ruin discovered at Itzamal, in Yucatan, and illustrates the high quality of the artistic work of this very early and, in many respects, primitive race of people which inhabited Central America in the pre-Columbian days. The design was probably executed with blunt flint,

Aztec kings he would have to deal first; without waiting, therefore, for further developments, he attacked with swift decision first the Mexicans and then



RELICS OF PRIMITIVE TIMES: AZTEC MASKS AND KNIFE

Mansell

These further examples of the artistic workmanship of the primitive Aztec peoples represent mosaic death masks and a flint knife with ornamental handle, set with stones. The mask on the right is encrusted with turquoise mosaic.

Tlatelulco. So successful was he in each of these campaigns that both kings were overthrown and their cities and countries laid waste. They would, perhaps, have been destroyed for all time if revolt had not broken out in every part of Maxtla's kingdom against his rule of lawlessness and

**Maxtla's Rule
of Lawlessness
and Oppression**

oppression. The sympathies which a large portion of the eastern provinces felt for the ancient royal house were greatly strengthened by Maxtla's aggrandisement. As his hands were entirely tied by the wars, the Chichimec Nezahualcoyotl considered that the time had come to make some attempt to regain his father's kingdom. Tlazcala and Huexotzinco willingly placed their bands of warriors at his disposal.

The feeble opposition with which he met in most of the provinces of his father's kingdom enabled him to reconquer a large part of it, but the capital, Tezcuco, offered an unconquerable resistance. Tezozomoc had here set up the prince of the old royal house as his representative. This prince knew very well that he had nothing to hope from the mercy of the

lawful heir of the Chichimec kingdom if he were once defeated; he therefore made the most vigorous and ultimately successful efforts to maintain himself in the capital. But as long as he remained unsubdued the position of Nezahualcoyotl was untenable, chiefly on account of the moral impression conveyed. The campaigns that had been begun with such brilliant success ended in a manner not very far removed from defeat.

The first result of this half success was that a number of allies began to weaken in their fidelity, so that Nezahualcoyotl must have begun to fear that attack of Maxtla which he would certainly have to withstand. In this dangerous position the allies whose aid he most desired—the Aztecs—offered their help. After Maxtla had retired from Mexico they had at once re-established the empire. For a moment their choice had wavered between Itzcopuatl, the brother of Chimalpopoca, and his nephew Montezuma, who, though young, had already been crowned with the laurels of many victories. Fortunately, their constitution was wide enough for more than one vigorous man

to make himself useful in it. The kingdom still bore unmistakable traces of its development from an aristocracy. Apart from the priesthood, still most influential, the king had by him two high temporal dignitaries, the tlacatecatl (lord of the armies) and the tlacochcalcatl (lord of the arrow). Montezuma was called to

Confederacy Against the Tecpanecs

the first of these two positions; he was able thereby to satisfy his ambition and also to expend his energy in acting with his royal uncle for the good of the realm. Recent events pointed with sufficient clearness to the direction his energies should take, for Maxtla unconditionally refused to recognise the choice that had been made, and was threatening a new attack. Thus a common enemy again brought the Mexicans and the Chichimecs together.

Montezuma went to Nezahualcoyotl and formed a confederacy with him against the Tecpanecs, which confederacy was at once joined by the newly chosen king of Tlatelulco. It was immediately agreed that they should carry the war as soon as possible into the enemy's country. Nezahualcoyotl openly announced his intention of re-establishing the old royal house in Tezcuco, thereby certainly estranging many friends who had hoped to gain their own independence if they stood by him in the hour of misfortune. But by entering into alliance with all the enemies of the Tecpanec tyrant he was fully compensated for the dangerous elements in his own situation. The campaign which he led in person along with the Mexicans was finally decisive after many victories on either side. With the support of the king of Tlacopan the allied Aztecs and Tezcucans gained a complete victory over the Tecpanecs.

Atzacaputzalco was captured and destroyed, and Maxtla fell, either in battle or afterwards, beneath the blows of his opponents. Those who had thought that with the fall of the Tecpanec tyranny freedom had come for Anahuac were cruelly undeceived. The more prudent of the dependents of Nezahualcoyotl had remained neutral in the decisive battles, and now they openly revolted. But the power of the allies increased no further; and the division of political power which had been arranged after the capture of Atzacaputzalco, at the festivities which

took place in Tenochtitlan to celebrate the victory, was now immediately carried out. Anahuac was divided between the kings of Mexico and Tezcuco. Nezahualcoyotl, who had not even yet been able to effect an entrance into his ancient capital, obtained the whole of his father's kingdom, which had embraced the eastern half of Anahuac, and also the title of Chichimecatl Tecuhtli. The historical importance of this title still gave its recipient the right to claim the first place and the highest rank among the allies. The part played by the Mexicans had hitherto been of too little importance to enable them to dispute about this position; they had to thank their long friendship and relationship with the monarchs of Tezcuco for the fact that an important portion of the booty fell to their share.

With the exception of the district of Tlacopan, which had been exempted from destruction to provide lands for those who had given their help against Maxtla, the whole kingdom of the Tecpanecs, in which the Mexicans themselves, like the

Conquered Kingdom of the Tecpanecs

other kings, had hitherto been only vassals, now fell into their power, which at first they were obliged, no doubt, to enforce with arms. Their position in the councils of the allies became still more prominent; here they were considered as having equal rights with the Tezcucans, while the king of Tlacopan, the third member in this new triple alliance, remained independent, but was obliged to recognise the unconditional superiority of the two other members. In the future these conditions were to remain unchanged; it was arranged also that all future conquests should be divided between the allies, so that the king of Tlacopan should obtain a fifth part of the spoil and the rest should be divided in equal portions between the rulers of Tezcuco and Tenochtitlan. Such were the contents of the treaty between the leading nations of Anahuac.

These political relations continued to the time of the Spanish invasion; the confederation that would eventually have broken up remained undisturbed until the time of the conquest. The three allied kings carried on a number of wars, especially against their immediate neighbours on the south; no doubt the booty was then divided in accordance with the

provisions of their compact. The Mexicans seem, however, to have gained greater accessions of territory even in these cases of common conquest. But each of the allied kings undertook isolated wars of conquest against adjoining territories. Consequently, the division of the kingdom into eastern and western territories is not strictly adhered to; we meet with the Tezcucans on the west and on the coast of the Pacific Ocean, and similarly we find the Aztecs on the east as far as the shores of the Gulf of Mexico.

The most important change which the lapse of time brought about within the confederacy consisted in the fact that the kings of Tenochtitlan began more and more to take a leading part. Though keeping strictly to the legal conditions of the confederation, the kings of Tezcucan allowed themselves to be pushed into the background by the kings of Tenochtitlan; the reason lay solely in a national peculiarity of both peoples and their leaders.

The kings of Tezcucan had always been more renowned for the care they expended upon the internal well-being of their kingdom than for their warlike expeditions. This reputation was supported by both of the kings who held the throne at the time of the confederation, Nezahualcoyotl and his son Nezahualpilli. It was not that they were lacking in warlike vigour; when it was a question of maintaining their authority or preserving the integrity of their kingdom, they were fully equal to the task; but they never undertook wars of conquest. Under no circumstances was war an end in itself to the kings of Colhuacan; it was invariably the means to higher ends.

During the first ten years Nezahualcoyotl concentrated his attention upon the reorganisation of his kingdom, which had been greatly shattered by revolutions following upon the death of Ixtlilxochitl. He kept in view that feudal system which his father, and his grandfather, Techotl, had introduced; and this in spite of the sad experience which both he and his predecessors had had of it. Similarly he followed the steps of his ancestors with regard to the organisation of a judicial system; his decrees were long respected by the Spaniards as being particularly valuable. Above all, he resembled the earlier kings in his love for the fine arts; temples and palaces, gardens and baths,

streets and bridges, arose under his care, both in the capital and in the provinces. Wherever in the whole valley of Mexico more important artistic buildings were taken in hand, the finished art of Nezahualcoyotl and his architects became the guiding principle of their construction. He showed his thankfulness to the Mexicans for the support which they had given him in the hour of necessity by his erection of the aqueduct which brought spring water in pipes of clay enclosed in stone from Chapultepec to the capital of the Aztecs situated among the marshes; and when, in the year 1445, continuous rains had made the lake rise to a threatening height, and had almost flooded the whole of Tenochtitlan, he it was who built a wide mole of a semicircular form, and kept the low-lying water round the town from uniting with the lake which was threatening danger.

Nezahualcoyotl also devoted uninterrupted attention to intellectual progress. He was himself one of the foremost poets that the ancient American civilisation produced; his melancholy songs passed from mouth to mouth long after his race and his kingdom had disappeared from the face of the earth. The maturity of his intellect is to be seen in the traditions that we have of his religious ideas. His predecessors had been accustomed to exercise a wide tolerance toward the religious conceptions of their various subjects, which often differed materially from one another. But in this matter Nezahualcoyotl far surpassed the fame of his ancestors.

In the very capital of his kingdom, in the city of Tezcucan, he allowed temples to be erected to the most different divinities, even a temple to Huitzilopochtli, although he was as averse to the blood-stained worship of this divinity as were his forefathers. Being thus convinced of the inadequacy and incompleteness of the worship of his people, he arrived at the conception of the one God who created and sustains the world. Perhaps it would be a bold comparison to call the Tezcucan of Nezahualcoyotl the Athens of Central America; but in his time Tezcucan certainly was the one great centre of all the intellectual life, progress, and learning to be found in these kingdoms.

The Centre of Intellectual Life and Progress

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A MEXICAN DIVINITY



A VASE FROM HONDURAS



FEMALE FIGURE IN VOLCANIC STONE



MEXICAN STATUE IN VOLCANIC STONE

EXAMPLES OF ANCIENT CENTRAL AMERICAN CARVING IN STONE



THE MEXICAN SUPREMACY AND THE POWERFUL EMPIRE OF MONTEZUMA

ALTHOUGH Nezahualcoyotl had a large number of sons by different women, it was only in the year 1463 that he entered upon lawful wedlock with the princess Azcaxochitl of Tlacopan. There was one son of their union, Nezahualpilli, who was eight years old at the death of his father, which took place in 1472.

Brought up under the care of the king Ayayacatl, in Mexico, he remained the true son of his great father in his intellectual capacities. He was not allowed to take the same important position in the triple alliance as his father had held, who was older than his Aztec confederates, and whose age and intellectual endowments had been a check on the encroachment of the neighbouring kingdom. His son was obliged to take the second place within the confederacy; for now not only might and splendour, but also the preponderance of age and experience were on the side of the Mexicans.

Mexicans Held in Fear The development of the kingdom of Tenochtitlan was different in many essential details. Its equality with Tezcuco in the confederation of 1431 had not been entirely deserved; immediately before the gates of the capital lay the sister state Tlatelulco, governed by its own independent monarch. And although the Mexicans were more feared for their prowess in arms than respected over a wide district, they yet had first to subdue that kingdom before they could lay claim to suzerainty over the Western Anahuac.

A famous line of royal heroes, the sons and nephews of Huitzilohuitl, had devoted themselves successfully to this task. At first their expeditions were directed chiefly toward the south; after Xochimilco and Cuitlahua had been incorporated, the endless wars against the states of Chalca began. The Mexicans had already overcome the people of Chalca many times when they were in the service of the Tecpanecs; but these had not yet been entirely subdued,

and at the time of the revolution they had again recovered their independence, as had many other portions of the Tecpanec kingdom. Even now the people of Chalca offered an invincible resistance to the Mexicans alone. But their provocations had also driven Nezahualcoyotl into the ranks of their enemies; and the numerous Chalca states were unable to offer any prolonged resistance to the united armies of the three allied kingdoms. For nearly twenty years—1446–1465—three successive kings of Mexico took the field yearly against the Chalca with varied success, until they succeeded in reducing their last fortress, the town of Chalco. From 1465 the Chalca were reckoned among the states tributary to Tenochtitlan.

Mexican Kings on the Battlefield

In the year 1440, Itzcohuatl, who had helped to found the confederacy of 1431, died, and his nephew Montezuma (more correctly "Moctezuma") Ilhuicamina, succeeded him on the throne; this was the king who did most to extend the Aztec dominions. The war against Chalco, which was brought to a successful end in the last years of his reign, claimed most of his attention, but at the same time he extended the boundaries of his kingdom in other directions also. Moreover, he made most important improvements in the internal organisation of the state.

Even under the government of Itzcohuatl his high position enabled him to exercise great influence, for he had been at the same time commander-in-chief of the army and high-priest of Huitzilopochtli. Nor was it for nothing that he had been the intimate friend of Nezahualcoyotl. The capital owed to him the most important of those buildings which excited the astonishment of the conquerors; the dykes which connected the town with the mainland; the canals which served as its high-roads; the temples, and in particular the temple of Huitzilopochtli, to which

Montezuma's Great Work for his Kingdom

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generations had made additions, and which was not even ended on Montezuma's death, although he brought out the final plans. In religious matters Montezuma showed some sympathy with that toleration practised by the kings of Tezcuco. In Tenochtitlan there were already numerous temples to foreign divinities, and it

The Mexicans, Blood-stained Hecatombs

speedily became the custom to celebrate every victory over another race by transplanting its gods and its worship to the capital. As a matter of fact, these importations exercised no material influence upon the peculiar character of the Aztec worship; on the contrary, the higher the power and the fame of the Mexicans rose, the more eagerly did they continue their horrible sacrifices of human blood.

They were possessed with the idea that their successes, which became more brilliant year by year, were owing to the favour of heaven, which they had gained by their numerous sacrifices; and in order to retain this favour they increased their blood-stained hecatombs in proportion to the growth of their power. Every national festival, every victory, every recommencement of the cycle of years, every coronation, and every dedication of a temple was celebrated with bloody sacrifices; the greater the occasion, the more numerous the victims. Nor was it only a question of thankfulness to the gods whose favour they had won; by these means they attempted to make atonement to those whose anger they had incurred.

When, in the year 1445, a famine which lasted several years came upon the whole of Anahuac, the Aztec desire for sacrifice rose almost to the pitch of frenzy. At first they were themselves sufficiently strong to make captives of their foes in border warfare; the brave hearts of these prisoners, which were torn still palpitating from the breast which the obsidian knife had cleft, were considered as the most

Anahuac Under a Great Famine

welcome offering to the gods. But at length their necessities became greater, and their warriors thinned in number, and, exhausted by famine, were neither available for sacrifice nor equal to the fatigues of a campaign. The rulers of the state, trembling before the wrath of heaven, then conceived an idea unparalleled in the history of the world. They concluded a formal contract with the warlike states of the east, the Tascalans

and the Huexotzincos, upon whom the famine had pressed less severely, to hold an annual sham fight in a particular place, between an equal number of warriors, apparently with the idea of providing the necessary victims for the services of the gods from the prisoners who should then be taken. As a matter of fact, during the years of famine such battles took place several times; but after that time had passed by the warlike disposition of the Aztecs provided a number of sufficient victims from real warfare, and mimic warfare became superfluous.

The greater the power and prestige of the Mexicans grew, the more oppressive they found it to have exactly in front of the gates of their capital an almost independent community ruled by its own kings, the sister town of Tlatelulco. The time when this state could have rivalled Mexico in glory and splendour had long passed away, but there remained a hostile disposition which was apparent in all kinds of little animosities. The Mexicans, naturally, only waited for a favourable opportunity to take their

The King of Tlatelulco Overthrown

revenge for these; but, considering the number of enemies that they had both within and without their realm, it was a hazardous act to endanger peace at the gates of the capital by any show of aggression. It fell out exactly in accordance with their wishes that the king of Tlatelulco entered into a most traitorous compact with their enemies at a time when the wars against the Chalca claimed the undivided attention of the Mexicans.

When Montezuma again returned to Tenochtitlan from the successful campaign in the south, he turned his overpowering forces on Tlatelulco; and, in the battles which followed, the allies, as usual, failed to come to the help of its short-sighted king, who lost his throne and his life. In spite of this the Mexicans were satisfied with setting up a vassal king of Tlatelulco in the person of a governor who was unconditionally subject to themselves. But although Moquihuix owed his elevation entirely to his uncle, Montezuma, the deeply rooted aversion of the people of Tlatelulco from their more fortunate rivals won him over in the course of time.

When Axayacatl, in the year 1468, ascended the throne of Tenochtitlan after the death of Montezuma, Moquihuix made the attempt to win back the independence

of his little state by force of arms. The struggle is said to have lasted full five years before the powerful Mexicans succeeded in definitely crushing the resistance of their neighbour. We see by this fact how the singularly loose organisation of the states allowed a little band of brave and determined warriors to threaten the existence even of a powerful kingdom, so long as they could rely upon the sympathies of its remaining subjects. After the subjection of Moquihuix, the Mexicans did not again commit the folly of planting the seeds of disunion so close to the centre of their kingdom. Tlatelulco ceased to exist as an individual town; it was incorporated with Tenochtitlan, from which it had long been divided only by a canal, and those of its inhabitants who did not submit to the new order of things were banished.

Tenochtitlan, by its union with Tlatelulco, now acquired a considerable extension of territory, security against continually threatening danger, and an extraordinary increase of power. In the whole of Central America down to the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, and northward from that point, the Tlatelulca had been energetic traders, and nearly all the commerce between the north and the south had passed through their hands. Of all the states in and around Anahuac the Tlascaltecs were almost their only rivals in this department, although their traffic was carried on rather among the states upon the gulf than upon the Pacific coast.

Hitherto the feeble character of their home policy had at times unfavourably influenced the commercial undertakings of the Tlatelulca, but after the Mexicans had gained possession of the town the business interests of its inhabitants were also under Mexican protection. From this time onward the Mexican merchants play an important part as forming the reconnoitring and intelligence department of the Mexican armies, and as opening the way for acts of aggression in all their wars.

Under Axayacatl the kingdom of Tenochtitlan reached its widest extent. The Mexican power went at least so far northward as to overpass the mountain range which surrounds the high valleys of Anahuac. Here Tula and Tulancingo represent the extreme outposts, the connection of which with the Aztec kingdom was neither firm nor lasting. Moreover, upon the west the Mexicans made

conquests at a late period and of no great extent. Only the portions of Michuacan on their immediate boundaries were subject to their rule; with the Tarascos, who dwelt farther west and extended to the seaboard, they never really measured their strength. On the Pacific coast the influence of the central states spread first toward the south. But it was not exclusively the kings of Tenochtitlan who made towns and princes tributary to themselves in this district; the Tezcucans also had vassals here. It has been already observed that the Mexican power was confined to a few fortified towns in the Zapotec country; but on the north-west and south, beyond the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, numerous vassal princes seem to have recognised their suzerainty.

On the east wide districts were subject to the central power. If originally the kings of Tezcucos had here overshadowed the Aztecs, yet the latter, in course of time, had gained the upper hand, owing to the peaceful inclinations of the princes of Tezcucos, and by availing themselves of every opportunity which the Mexicans afforded them. The king of Tenochtitlan undoubtedly may be reproached for having traitorously employed his regency during the minority of Nezahualpilli to aggrandise himself at the expense of the allied kingdom; but, in fact, even upon the east, the influence of the Aztecs was preponderant and overspread the states on the coast of the Mexican Gulf from Panuco in the north, through the district of the Huastecs and Totonacs, as far south as Xicalanco and Nonohualco to the borders of Yucatan.

However, in the immediate neighbourhood of these allied central powers there existed a point of continual disturbance which was a refuge for all those who wished to escape the ever-increasing tyranny of the Aztecs; this was the kingdom of Huexotzinco and the republic of Tlaxcala. In earlier times both had belonged to the Chichimec kingdom of Tezcucos, and in the period of persecution had lent their support to the legal heir of that country, Nezahualcoyotl. But when he entered into alliance with the Aztecs, with a view to recovering his kingdom, his earlier allies broke away from him, and from that time forward created uninterrupted disturbances upon the boundaries of the kingdom. As a result of a whole

**Widespread
Aztec
Influence**

**Extent
of Mexican
Power**

**Tyranny
of the
Aztecs**

series of campaigns. Huexotzinco seems to have been made tributary—at any rate, for some time. But whenever the allied kings forced their way into the mountainous country of the Tlascaltecs, and obtained some apparent result by devastating it with fire and sword, the lawless spirit of this brave little people invariably

How the Aztec Kingdom was Organised survived all the attacks of the motley vassal armies of the kings of Anahuac. Though shut in on every side, the Tlascalans maintained their independence until the arrival of the Spaniards; and the ferocious hatred with which they regarded their neighbouring persecutors made them the firmest allies of Cortes against Tenochtitlan.

The organisation of the Aztec kingdom was essentially the same as that of the other Central American states. When they had firmly subjugated territories, they made tributary vassal kingdoms of them, and attempted to secure the fidelity of their subject kings by setting up therein members of the royal family, or its connections by marriage. But the Mexicans attempted to secure their hold, not only upon the thrones of their conquered kingdoms, but also upon the land itself. Each successful campaign was followed by free gifts of land and people to all those whose warlike prowess had contributed to the success; at times we should be correct in speaking of an actual colonisation of the conquered district.

Bravery in war was thus stimulated by the prospect of a brilliant reward which was within the reach of even the humblest warrior; and this newly founded feudal aristocracy provided a protection and a counterpoise to any yearnings for independence that the vassal kings might have had. The colonisation and organisation of conquests in this manner did not, however, extend beyond the country of Anahuac and the districts in the immediate vicinity of its southern border. Want of

Provinces Conquered by the Mexicans men chiefly prevented the extension of a similar form of government over the

more distant provinces. But even there a victorious campaign was immediately followed by the deposition of the reigning monarch and his dynasty, and the installation of a subject king. Provided a specified tribute were paid, the conquered province remained in other respects almost as independent as before. Every year the

messengers came from Tenochtitlan to collect a tribute, in cases where they were not permanently settled at the court of the vassal king; and, in order to ensure obedience and respect to the king and to his land, particular points on the most important lines of communication were strongly fortified and powerfully garrisoned.

These posts formed a meeting-place for the collectors and for merchants in times of peace and a basis for resistance in case of revolt. We have particular notice of such garrisons in the outlying provinces of the Mixtec and Zapotec territory on the south, and in the district of the Huaztecs and Totonacs on the east. With all these provisions the Mexicans did not succeed in preventing frequent insurrections, sometimes of a dangerous nature; but in spite of the burning hatred with which they were regarded by a great part of their subjects, on account of their bloody and tyrannical rule, during a whole century these subjects never succeeded in seriously endangering the existence of the empire by a general insurrection.

Montezuma II. on the Throne of Tenochtitlan

Axayacatl, who died in the year 1477, after a short but glorious reign, was followed by two monarchs who did not attain the fame of their forefathers. Tizocic and Ahuitzotl did indeed lead the armies of the Aztecs to victory in different directions beyond their borders; but they had neither the personal qualities nor the good fortune to confer any particular benefits upon the state, the extent of which made it more and more difficult to rule. But in the person of Montezuma II. a monarch again ascended the throne of Tenochtitlan who seemed capable of reviving the great traditions of the past.

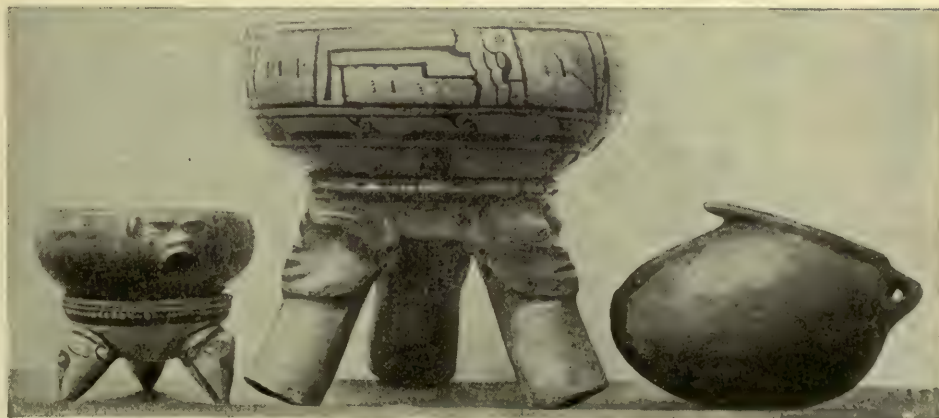
Before he ascended the throne he had already covered himself with military glory, and he made it his particular object to justify the hopes which were set upon his rule; but fortune was not particularly favourable to him. In the last years of Ahuitzotl's reign belief in the invincible powers of the Mexican arms had begun to grow visibly weak; the Zapotecs had recovered their complete independence, and in Tlascalala the Mexicans had again received a defeat. A few isolated successes did not enable Montezuma, by means of a sensational victory, to remove the impression of the discomfitures they had suffered,



PAINTED BOWLS AND CUP FROM THE ISLAND OF SACRIFICIOS



SPECIMENS OF POTTERY. WITH PAINTED DESIGNS



VASES OF TERRA-COTTA FROM TOMBS IN NICARAGUA

CHARACTERISTIC EXAMPLES OF ANCIENT MEXICAN POTTERY

Mansell

Prospects for the future within the realm were also threatening ; the alliance between Mexico and Tezcuco, upon which the power of the central states had hitherto chiefly rested, began to grow weaker and weaker. Nezahualpilli, although his bravery had been proved upon many a field, had, like his predecessors,

Montezuma been no lover of war ; and it was owing, for the most part, to **Guilty** the influence of the confederation that he had supported the **of Treachery** Mexicans in their restless desire for extension of territory, while at times he had stood aside and remained neutral. So it was no wonder if the kings of Tenochtitlan became more and more convinced that they were the sole repositories of strength and power, and that the other confederates had no right to equal prestige or to an equal share in the spoil. Their exaggerated opinion of themselves led to arrogance ; and this produced distrust upon both sides, resulting in secret enmity.

The Mexicans began to conceive the plan of attacking their previous confederates upon the first opportunity, and reducing them to the position of vassal states. During an unsuccessful war against Tlazcala in the year 1512, which the Aztecs and Tezcucans undertook in common, Montezuma is said to have carried his faithlessness so far as to have left the confederates in the lurch during a battle, and to have even entered into treasonable correspondence with the Tlazcalans. Nezahualpilli did not find courage to avenge this insult by an open declaration of war, but from this time the confederates regarded one another as enemies, and when Nezahualpilli died, four years later, hostilities broke out openly.

The king of Tezcuco had neglected to choose his successor during his lifetime, so Montezuma was able to obtain the election of a prince whom he hoped to use according to his desires. Cacama was

The New Montezuma's own nephew, and **King of** if he were a man of strong **Tezcuco** character the fact had never yet been made manifest.

Character, indeed, was far more apparent in his brother Ixtlilxochitl, who, though younger, had made a name for himself as a warrior during his father's lifetime. But all his attempts to prevent the election of Cacama were unsuccessful ; and as he regarded his nephew merely as Montezuma's tool, Ixtlilxochitl might suppose

himself fighting for the independence of his father's kingdom when he openly raised the standard of revolt. He did not succeed in maintaining himself any length of time in Tezcuco ; but in the northern provinces he found numerous supporters.

There he might reckon upon the help of all those who feared that the victory of Cacama would mean the establishment of an exclusively Mexican dominion ; and so he succeeded not only in utterly defeating an army that Montezuma sent against him but also in making progress, slowly but steadily, forward, until he so threatened Tezcuco that Cacama preferred to conclude peace with him on condition of dividing their father's kingdom.

The kings of Anahuac must undoubtedly have heard long ago of the appearance of wonderful foreigners who had come oversea from the east into the neighbouring district. The extensive trade and the admirable organisation of traffic in the kingdom of Anahuac and the neighbouring provinces would certainly have brought them rumours, and perhaps particular information, concerning the first appearance

Spaniards and the further progress **Assisted by** of these foreigners who for **Natives** the last twenty-five years had been spreading over the

islands and on the south. What superstitious ideas were excited by this occurrence can be understood from the important place given to discussions in the later historians as to whether the appearance of the Spaniards had any connection with the old prophecies, which spoke of an entire revolution of their conditions of life, which should come forth from the east. At any rate, as regards the Spaniards, the belief of the natives that their appearance was connected in some way with the promised return of Quetzalcoatl was to them a help no less important than was the universal enmity with which the nations of Central America regarded the Mexican dominion.

This hatred brought to their side the large bands of native allies who helped them to overcome all the difficulties which confronted the passage of a few hundred men into the centre of these extensive states, while the religious awe in which they were held afforded them a friendly reception and a firm footing on the coast-land, and cleared the way for their entrance into Mexico—an entrance which implied the fall of the ancient kingdoms of Central America.



NATIVE CIVILISATIONS of SOUTH AMERICA

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS OF THE VANISHED RACES

THE CHIBCHAS IN HISTORY AND LEGEND

THE southern extremity of the Cordilleras or the Andes is formed of one mountain chain ; but twenty-six degrees south of the equator they divide into two ranges which diverge more widely as they proceed northward. At first these enclose only a narrow tableland, on which one or two lake systems are to be found ; afterwards the mountain ranges become more complex. Between the main ridges and parallel with them long valleys form a river-bed to which the streams on the heights at either hand contribute until the river is strong enough to force a passage through some outlet in these mountain walls. On the west the rivers, after a precipitous descent, rush wildly down across the narrow strip of barren coast-land to the ocean. On the east, after a fall quite as abrupt, they reach the wooded lowlands and feed the great river system of La Plata, the Amazon, and the Orinoco.

Many of the valleys lie at very considerable heights—the level of Lake Titicaca is more than 12,600 feet above the sea ; Quito has an elevation of 9,380 feet ; and Bogota 8,750 feet. Yet it is not difficult to understand why it was only here that the native South American civilisation could take root and develop. With the exception of occasional tracts, the narrow strip of coast-land lying between the mountains and the sea upon the west is not actually sterile, or at least is not wholly incapable of cultivation. But the almost entire absence of rainfall throughout the year, and the heat of a tropical sun, whose rays are here

nearly vertical, destroy all beginnings of vegetation before they have sufficiently established themselves to afford shade and protection to their own roots or to undergo growth. At intervals, in the long stretch of coast-line, streams and rivers descend from the mountains, but the scanty limits of the level country afford them no space for development. So at the melting of the snows they rush down as devastating torrents to the sea, while in the dry seasons they are either dried up entirely or contain so little water that a narrow belt of vegetation in the immediate neighbourhood of their banks is all that can find a bare subsistence.

If on the western side it is the almost entire absence of rainfall which precludes human habitation and progress, upon the east the excessive rainfall is equally unfavourable to human industry. Here, too, for the most part, the mountain face descends abruptly. But beneath it spreads a boundless expanse of lowland over which the rivers flow but gently. When the mountain streams are swollen by the melting snow, these rivers rise high above their banks ; districts of such extent are then so inundated that the boundaries even between the most important river systems disappear, and a canoe can be borne from one river to the next. Here also primitive man, with his rude implements, could gain no sufficient footing to enable him to wrest from Nature the means of life. Nor was any such struggle necessary ; from the wealth of her tropical abundance Nature afforded him only too easily the

**Cradle of
South American
Civilisation**



A FAMILIAR SIGHT ON THE SLOPES OF THE ROCK-STREWN ANDES



A GIGANTIC GROUP OF PEAKS RANGING FROM 15,000 TO 23,000 FEET IN HEIGHT
THE MOUNTAIN CHAIN OF THE ANDES IN SOUTH AMERICA



A MOUNTAIN PASS, SHOWING THE HEAD WATERS OF THE RIVER AMAZON



REST HUT BUILT FOR THE USE OF TRAVELLERS CROSSING THE MOUNTAINS

CHARACTERISTIC SCENES AMONG THE ANDES

means of satisfying his modest requirements, and he became a wanderer with no definite or settled dwelling-place.

Thus there remained for man's habitation only that huge mountain mass which bears in its long folds the peaks and ranges of the Cordilleras, and forms low valleys between its mountain arms. It rises above

Primitive Man's Habitation the sea-level to a height of several thousand feet, almost to the snow-line of the Alps; but the temperature that prevails even at this height in tropical latitudes is by no means unfavourable to man and to his requirements. Primitive man here found that most indispensable of all requisites, water—water in sufficient abundance to fertilise the soil, and yet not so abundant as to be an invincible enemy; water, too, that presented him with provision in the fish which were found in the greater and smaller lakes, into which brook or river swelled when its course was dammed; and these fish could be caught even with the primitive implements of early times.

Here the forest offered him a refuge, and, in the next stage of his progress, material for his inventions. The rocks which the mountain torrents brought down to him were ready for him to build with. In the Cordilleras of South America he found two more precious gifts, which had the greatest influence upon the development of his civilisation—the potato, which grew even upon the heights where the maize could not flourish; and the llama, the household animal of the American continent, which bore man's burdens, clothed him with its wool, and fed him with its meat.

All these conditions were perhaps not equally favourable over the whole of that great stretch of country which forms the region of the South American civilisation; yet it is plain from what has been already said that the natural conditions contributing to the development of a civilisation were at hand. At any rate, even in the remotest antiquity, these conditions raised culture to a higher plane than it attained at that time among the inhabitants of the rest of South America. The knowledge of the proper mode of preparing the manioc and skill in pottery were seen to spring from those ancient civilised influences which proceeded from the peoples of the Cordilleras, apparently from the range of Bolivia, where they were

more widely extended than elsewhere. It is in this region that we must seek for the early home, not only of many uncivilised peoples of South America, but also of all the civilised peoples; as is apparent from the fact that in South America all tradition points to the progress of civilisation from south to north, whereas in the districts of Central America the contrary was the case. The civilisation actually attained, though its development was by no means uniform, is, on the whole, of a higher standard as we penetrate southward. For this reason, and also because in the extreme north this civilisation existed undisturbed at the time of the Spanish invasion, while at the same time in the south numbers of older states had been absorbed by the Incas, we shall begin our narration of the ancient history of these civilisations from the north.

The most northerly of the civilised districts of South America is that of the Chibchas. For philological reasons attempts have been made to show the relation of the Chibchas to other races, and in particular to those that inhabit the most southerly regions of Central America

Home of the Chibchas immediately on the north of the Isthmus of Panama; it has thus been inferred that the Chibchas emigrated to their later settlements from the north. Others, also, have attempted to identify scattered Chibcha bands in Costa Rica, which are said to have arrived there from the south. But if even their connection with races living outside their boundaries should be established, yet the peculiar nature of the Chibcha civilisation in Colombia justifies us in disregarding the historical importance of these, and confining our attention to the Chibchas themselves.

Their district lay upon the eastern bank of the central river of Magdalena, from which it was divided by a high range of mountains stretching from Rio Funza on the south as far as Carare and Sogamoso on the north and penetrated by no river of any importance. On the east it borders on the Cordilleras themselves. In a few places there were passes across those mountains, known to the Chibchas even then, and on the north-easterly corner, in the later San Juan de los Llanos, there seems to have been from early times communication between the inhabitants of the highland and those of the lowland upon the east. A high tableland, intersected



ANTIQUITIES OF THE VANISHED PEOPLE OF PERU

This collection of antiquities represents artistic handicrafts of the ancient peoples of Peru. The mummy of a Peruvian woman is shown in the foreground, while the poncho represented at the top of the page was an article of apparel much worn in bygone days and is still in vogue among certain American races. Other articles shown are vases and idols.

by numerous rivers, for the most part of small importance, covered with a great number of large or small lakes, and bounded by the two river systems above mentioned—such is the district of the Chibchas. It has an area of about 500 square miles, and was tolerably thickly populated at the time of the conquest. In the Chibcha

Chibcha Legend of Man's Creation

traditions there is nothing to lead us to conclude that their immigration into this district was of a late date. Their religious ideas invariably preserve the tradition of an early period of development; and so closely were their conceptions bound up with the localities in which the Spaniards met with them that they seem to have considered themselves as autochthonous. This is their legend concerning the creation of man.

After Chiminigagua had created heaven and earth, and had sent out the birds that brought light into all countries, a lovely woman named Bachue, or Furachogue, is said to have risen from the lake of Iguaque, on the north-east of Tunja, with a child three years old upon her arm, and to have built for herself a hut not far from there in a flowery valley, to have cultivated the ground, and to have carefully brought up the child. When the boy had become a man she is supposed to have married him, and to have presented him with a progeny so numerous that the surrounding country was occupied and peopled by it. When they grew old, the couple wandered back to the lake of Iguaque, and there took leave of their posterity, and disappeared again, in the form of two giant snakes, into the lake from which they had first come forth.

In spite of this and similar legends it is doubtful whether the first home of the Chibchas is rightly to be placed in the river district of the Magdalena. It must be noticed that they were there surrounded by people with whom they were in a state of continual war, and whose language

The Chibchas Surrounded by Enemies

was in no way related to their own. Moreover, the character of their civilisation was so entirely different that we can hardly believe the Chibchas to be a branch of the race surrounding them which had attained a higher cultivation under the influence of more favourable conditions. It is impossible, also, to establish any connection between the Chibchas and the other civilisations of the south. They were divided from their nearest civilised

neighbours, the Quitus, by the deep depression which the valley of the Ica River and the lake of Cocna makes in the Cordilleras at the sources of the Magdalena, and there are no coincidences in religion or civilisation to point to an earlier close connection between these peoples. Similarly upon the north there is absolutely no race or district which the Chibchas can be shown to have reached, carrying with them germs of the civilisation which brought forth a rich harvest in the river system of the Magdalena.

From the earliest times the Chibcha district must have been divided into a number of little communities about as numerous as the towns were later on; for over each of these settlements, with the districts surrounding them, a cacique continued to rule in later times. At first, all of these towns were of an equal importance, were independent of each other, and perhaps were connected in groups merely by their common veneration of certain sacred shrines; but in the course of time some of these petty monarchs began to enrich themselves at the expense of their

A Period of Racial Struggle

neighbours. Around each nucleus thus formed, other families had gathered by degrees, under compulsion or persuasion, until at last five caciques divided the government of the district, almost all the other local caciques being dependent upon them. This distribution was not definitely settled once for all, but each of the five head caciques (the "kings" of the Spaniards) was continually attempting to aggrandise himself at the expense of the others. The period immediately preceding the Spanish arrival was one of furious struggle; its result would undoubtedly have been the closer incorporation of the political groups upon the highland of Bogota if the Spaniards had not indiscriminately subjugated all the kings and extended their power over a district which reached far beyond the boundaries of the old Chibcha kingdom.

Of the five states which divided the district of Chibcha in the century immediately preceding the arrival of the Spaniards, the first was known as Zippa, or Bogota, after the name of its governor, which is said to mean the sun; the Spaniards gave this name to the capital of the country. The four others were as follows: the state of Zaque or Hunsá, with its capital Tunja; the state of



VIEW IN THE CORDILLERAS BETWEEN MENDOZA AND CHILI



SCENE ON THE RIVER CHILLAN IN THE SOUTH OF CHILI

MOUNTAIN AND RIVER SCENES IN THE SOUTH AMERICAN CONTINENT

Sogamoso, the priestly kings of which bore the title of Iraca; Guatabita, which lay on the lake of the same name; and lastly Tundama, to which belonged the extreme north-east of the district, from the line of the Cordilleras to the later San Juan de los Llanos. Although in later times the central point of political power

Mythological Hero of the Chibchas

was to be found in the states of Tunja and Bogota, yet the tradition of the Chibchas recorded that this condition of affairs was of recent establishment. Between the states of Tundama, Sogamoso and Guatabita the traditions made no difference as regards the period of their foundation.

But if their religious and mythological circumstances be considered, we may assert that Tundama was rather on the circumference of the Chibcha civilisation, of which Sogamoso formed the political centre, during that period which immediately preceded the rise of Zaque and Zipa; whereas Guatabita formed the oldest religious centre of the whole area of Chibcha population. Here, on the lake of Guatabita, tradition placed all those events of the past which served to explain the conditions of the present. Here in particular was placed the battle between the mythological hero of the Chibchas, Bochica, who was certainly an incarnation of the sun, and his wife Chia, an incarnation of the moon, who was as wicked as she was beautiful. According to tradition, the Chibchas, at their first appearance, were mere savages living in the valley of the Funza River, which was then entirely surrounded by mountains upon the south.

Bochica came to bring them the blessings of civilisation; he taught them how to cultivate the maize and potato, to make them garments by spinning yarn, and to live as an organised community. But Chia everywhere opposed his efforts towards civilisation, and when she saw that in spite of her energy the work of Bochica became

The Flood in Chibcha Legend

more and more successful, she dammed up the outflow of the Funza until its waters filled up the whole valley, and only a few of the inhabitants succeeded in escaping to the highest peaks. Thereupon anger overcame Bochica. He banished Chia from the earth, and put her into the heaven as the moon; then with his lightning he split the enclosing valley wall, so that the waters rushed out in the mighty waterfall of Tequendama, and

only the lake of Guatabita remained as a memorial of the universal flood. The details of this legend reflect a high veneration for the powers of Nature which is a characteristic feature in the religion of the Chibchas. Mountain and rock, tree and shrub, but especially water, brooks and lakes, were considered by them as inhabited by divine beings, and were objects of particular veneration.

This veneration showed itself especially in pilgrimages, dances, and the burning of incense, and in the bringing of costly presents. The Chibchas offered these divinities objects peculiarly suitable for decoration and sacrifice, since their district provided them with many precious stones, especially emeralds, and also with gold. They had the greatest skill in beating out gold and then tastefully inlaying it with jewels. Hence their offerings were especially suitable for the service of the gods, and the habit of making these offerings turned their artistic tendencies into particular channels. This custom no doubt contributed not a little to the unusually high development of the goldsmith's art among the Chibchas. The sites

Relics of a Remarkable Civilisation

of their worship—both of the gods and of the dead who were connected with them—caves, lakes, and similar places, consequently provide a rich hunting-ground, and one only too easily attainable, for the costly antiquities of the Chibcha civilisation. From the Spanish conquest to the most recent times treasures to a large amount have been gathered from such places, for the most part to be melted down and coined into money. It is only in more recent times that greater respect has begun to be shown to these remains of a remarkable civilisation. Fortunately, a sufficient number of the inexhaustible and valuable antiquarian relics of the country has come down to us to enable us to form a judgment about them.

The lakes—and especially the lake of Guatabita—were localities much frequented for the purpose of making religious offerings. The festival sacrifices which the newly elected monarch offered in the lake of Guatabita even in later times gave rise to the fairy legend of El Dorado, the golden man, who is said to have been thrown into the lake of Guatabita. The proceedings were as follows: In all the Chibcha states the accession of a new monarch was celebrated with

prolonged religious ceremonies. His coronation was preceded by long and strict fasting; and at the end of this time of penance, sacrifices and festivals of unusual extravagance took place. But in Guatabita the following ceremony closed the festival.

The inhabitants of the whole land came together in procession to the shores of the lake, and on the day of coronation the priests brought the young ruler from his place of penance to the lake, where a vessel awaited his arrival, richly loaded with the most expensive offerings of gold and emeralds. The four most important caciques, clothed in their richest and most brilliant robes, entered the vessel; on the shore of the lake, to the accompaniment of offerings of incense, which were continued throughout the whole crowd of people there gathered together, the new monarch was clothed in festival robes by the priests, smeared with a sticky kind of earth, and then powdered from head to foot with gold dust. Gleaming like the sun—and in most of the Chibcha states the kings were considered as descended from the sun—he, too, entered the vessel, took his place

Chibchas' Sacrifices to their Gods

among his caciques, and was then rowed out upon the lake. In the middle of the lake the boat was stopped, and now the monarch offered to the gods, who were supposed to inhabit the lake, the rich store of offerings, while the people on shore celebrated the sacrifice by dancing to the accompaniment of musical instruments until the monarch reached the land again, and then for the first time began to take part in a festival continued for many days.

Though this mode of sacrifice was peculiar to Guatabita, yet the holy sacrificial spots were constantly visited by both the rulers and the subjects of the other Chibcha states. There were a large number of sacred lakes which were regarded as proper places for sacrifice, and were connected by high roads carefully kept in repair for the convenience of the pilgrims. Upon all extraordinary occasions—famines and epidemics, victorious battles, and at other times also—the kings of the different states ordained festival pilgrimages in which almost the whole people took part; for such pilgrimages were not only a duty that they owed to the gods, but were at the same time a festival for the people, who were then allowed free indulgence in all sensual pleasures. The main objective of all pilgrimages was Guatabita, the spot

most highly and widely revered in the whole Chibcha district. Probably even now the lake contains immense riches, which were poured into it in the shape of offerings. Repeated attempts to drain it have twice been partially successful. Search upon the districts around the banks has brought to light gold to the

A Lake of Boundless Treasures

value of thousands of dollars, although it was only the ordinary inhabitants who offered their gifts upon the shore.

What boundless treasures must be hidden in that lake! For not only the rulers of Guatabita, but each "usaque," "guecha," and, in fact, everybody of any social position whatever, was rowed out a short distance upon the lake and made his offering as nearly as possible at the central point of the sacred locality.

When the Spaniards came into the Chibcha district, Guatabita had lost its independence, and formed a part of the kingdom of Zippa, or Bogota. But that the religious centre was situated originally in Guatabita, and not in the new seat of power, is proved by the fact that Bogota is never mentioned in the mythological and legendary traditions, while the most extensive and most elaborate cycle of legends centres round Guatabita.

Side by side with Guatabita, Sogamoso (Sugamuxi) undoubtedly possessed some religious importance. The little state which bears this name lay on the eastern boundary of the Chibcha district, where two difficult passes over the eastern Cordilleras make communication possible with the lowland of Llanos. The development of many religious customs shows that the two states here came into contact, and that their communication was not without influence upon the Chibchas.

The bloodless worship which the Chibchas offered to Nature, natural objects, and especially water, held the first place in Guatabita. But their religion was by no

Sun-worship Among the Chibchas

means entirely composed of such harmless conceptions; human sacrifice formed an integral portion of their sun-worship. They certainly believed that the sun had been created by Chiminigagua. But this inexplicable creator seems never to have enjoyed divine honours, while the worship of the sun is everywhere to be found, as in the case of the Dorado ceremonies at Guatabita. The especial servants of the sun were the priesthood,



MOUNT ILLIMANI RISING TO A HEIGHT OF 21 190 FEET, IN BOLIVIA



ON THE FRONTIER BETWEEN BOLIVIA AND PERU

SOUTH AMERICAN VIEWS: SCENES IN BOLIVIA AND PERU

Photos: Edwards and E. N. A.



A TYPICAL PRAIRIE SCENE IN THE ARGENTINE



THE FAMOUS IGUAZU FALLS IN THE ARGENTINE



"SUGAR LOAF" ROCK AT RIO JANEIRO, WITH THE CORCOVADO MOUNTAIN IN DISTANCE

THE DIVERSIFIED SCENERY OF THE SOUTHERN CONTINENT

Photos: Edwards and Rider Noble

the "jeques," who were well organised and united by strict rules; as in the case of all early peoples, they exercised a wide influence upon the country and its inhabitants. The training to which the jeques were obliged to submit reminds one of the manner in which the medicine-man of the North American savages was forced

Fetishes in Chibcha Households to gain a reputation for holiness; but in this case the process was more systematic. Not every man was at liberty to proclaim himself as an intermediary between God and man. The priestly caste was already one of the estates of the realm: the position passed from uncle to nephew, the usual line of succession among the Chibchas. A period of penance and preparation extending over many years had to be passed through, and the permission of the monarch obtained.

Among the Chibchas every house had its own fetishes: these were little shapeless human figures, in the case of the rich families made of gold, while those of the poor were of clay; they almost always contained an interior receptacle for offerings. Besides these there was a large number of inferior divinities, to which no especial priests were attached, but which special classes of the people worshipped—a worship which might become universal on particular occasions. The temples with their priests were employed for a very anthropomorphic form of sun-worship, and all the celestial bodies were considered as the satellites of the sun.

Sacrifices of blood, and particularly human offerings, appear almost exclusively in the sun-worship. The mode of sacrifice was peculiar. The chosen victim was conveyed to a mountain-top upon which the rays of the rising sun smote. Here he was killed at the moment when the sun rose above the horizon, and the rock was smeared with his warm blood so that the sun could immediately derive nourishment therefrom. A similar

Cruel Forms of Human Sacrifices conception lay at the bottom of another peculiarly horrible form of sacrifice. In this case

the victim was brought to the appointed place, bound to the top of mastlike poles, and slowly done to death with arrows and spears, while the priests caught the blood that streamed down and offered it to the images in the temple. Greater refinement is apparent in another mode of human sacrifice, where the idea that the

victim is identified with a divinity is prominent. This idea is borrowed from Aztec customs. It is remarkable that for this purpose there were chosen only boys who belonged to the races living in Llanos, on the east.

This circumstance is also connected with the fact that the sun rises in the east and points to the eastern origin of the primitive Chibchas. From the later San Juan de los Llanos there was carried on a regular trade in small boys, whose navels were cut immediately after their birth as a mark that they were destined for sacrifice to the sun. When six or eight years old, they were brought into the towns by merchants, and the caciques purchased one or more of these sacred boys in proportion to their wealth. Until fifteen years of age they were honoured almost like divinities. They lived in the temples, where the priests were their servants; they acted as intermediaries between God and man in the case of suppliants; and if they ever left the temple buildings, which did not often happen, they were carried in litters, like kings and nobles,

Youths Kept for Sacrifice in order that their holy feet might not touch profane ground. Thus they lived until they became of age. If such a sacrificial youth found an opportunity to commit an act of unchastity, he became unfit for sacrifice: he was driven out, and sank to the level of an ordinary mortal; but otherwise his earthly career ended with a great feast in which the Chibchas gave full rein to their passion for display in processions and musical performances.

The sacrificial youth was the central point of the festival, and when it was at its height the heart and entrails were suddenly torn from the victim's body amid a deafening uproar from the mob, his head was struck off, and his blood and heart were carried to the feet of the gods as rapidly as possible. It was supposed, therefore, that the gods were supported by the flesh and blood of the victim. Both the Chibchas and their priests seem never to have practised cannibalism; the corpse was secretly buried by the latter, who gave out that the sun had eaten it.

One of the duties of the priests naturally consisted in the regulation of the calendar. All that has been said of the complicated chronology of the Chibchas, of their three different and concurrent methods of reckoning the year, is a figment of the



A PULQUERO EXTRACTING PULQUE FROM THE Maguey Plant in Mexico



A Pack-Train of Llamas, with Indian Driver, in Peru

THE LIFE AND CUSTOMS OF SOUTH AMERICAN PEOPLES

Underwood & Underwood

imagination, and the pretended calendar signs of the Chibchas are a feeble attempt at deception. Writing was absolutely unknown to the Chibchas; even the mnemonic system of the Peruvians—the “quipus”—was never used by them. Their year consisted of twelve lunar months, which were divided into smaller

Misconceptions With Regard to the Chibchas

divisions according to the phases of the moon. It is also entirely false that they devoted ten days to religious contemplation and retirement, ten to work, and ten to pleasure. A year of 360 days would naturally have brought them into obvious contradiction with the seasons; and as, for religious reasons, the priests carefully watched the sun, they were probably able to make the year coincide with the

a little plateau on the right bank of the upper Magdalena River, are to be found remains of an ancient American civilisation presenting peculiar characteristics. The ruins are now named San Agustin, after a miserable village which was founded in the previous century by the natives who felled the quina-wood; but what its ancient name was, and who the people were who left such remarkable memorials behind them, are still wholly uncertain.

The Chibcha civilisation never extended so far, but with no other of the races with which the Spaniards came in contact can these antiquities be connected. At the time of the Spanish conquest, and also according to Chibcha traditions, though these do not go back very far, this district was inhabited by the wild hordes of the



THE STRAIT OF MAGELLAN, AT THE SOUTHERN EXTREMITY OF CHILI

sun, though perhaps by arbitrary methods. The pillars found among people whose architecture has advanced very little have frequently been considered as dials or gnomons. It is certainly remarkable that in the Chibcha district, where stone architecture was entirely unknown up to the time of the conquest, numbers of stone pillars have been found, well set up and rounded, which apparently fulfilled no particular purpose; they lie there as if they had been casually left on the road.

These may be considered as sun-dials; but the entire lack of information as to their use, and also the fact that there are no traces of them in places which are well known to have been thickly populated, make the theory very doubtful. On the south of the Chibcha district, and only a few miles distant from it, on

Paeces, a race of cannibals and restless hunters, upon the lowest planes of civilisation, and accounted the most dangerous neighbours of the Chibchas. The memorials of the San Agustin civilisation must even then have been in ruins and have remained abandoned in the depths of the primeval forest, as they continued for

Memorials of San Agustin Civilisation

another three centuries, until certain wood-cutters penetrated into this jungle in their search for quina-trees, and, in order to prove the truth of their marvellous accounts of numerous temples of human figures, brought forth from the darkness of the forest the monuments which to-day adorn the market-place of San Agustin.

Upon the wooded hills at the upper course of the stream which flows through San Agustin and takes its name from the



THE ROCKING STONE AT TANDIL. PROBABLY USED IN HUMAN SACRIFICE



THE ANCIENT CARVED DEVIL GATES AT TANDIL
TRACES OF THE ANCIENT INHABITANTS OF ARGENTINA

town, the wood-cutters found a number of little temples, the construction of which is without parallel upon American soil. The people who erected them were making their first attempts at architecture. They were unable to work or to build into walls the stones which the mountain streams brought down to the tableland which they

**Primitive
Temples of
San Agustin** inhabited; they therefore sunk their temples half in the ground. Great blocks of stone were set up side by side in the manner of dolmens, forming a four-cornered room small enough to be roofed in by a huge slab. One might be tempted to consider these cell-like constructions as burial-places. But nothing has been found to justify this theory; on the contrary, the general character of their position shows undoubtedly that they were intended for temples. It also appears that they were never closed in upon every side; but the monuments clearly show sculptured pillars which formed the entrance, upon the back of which a large picture of a god was occasionally drawn.

At the present time scarcely a temple remains in a sufficient state of preservation to enable us to get an accurate plan of it; but from the descriptions and drawings of the first discoverers we are forced to conclude that the numerous carved stones which are now lying about in the woods, and some of which have been brought down to San Agustin, were at one time united into a single area of temples consisting of little consecrated chambers; and the considerable number of these monuments points to a rich population.

The memorials of San Agustin fall into three classes—supports or pillars, which formed the temple entrance; altar-stones sculptured with pictures of the gods in human form; and monuments of various kinds to which no particular place in the temples can be assigned. The temple pillars display the art of this

**The Art of
an Unknown
People** unknown people at its highest development. Though their architectural capabilities were extremely limited, yet their plastic art had attained such a pitch of perfection as to imply a long previous period of development. In their representations of the gods, symbolical tendencies confined the makers to archaic types; on the other hand, the pillars show a realism and a characterisation which tempt us to suppose that they were

portraits of realities. But in this case the artists laid stress only upon the face and its expression; the rest of the body is never drawn with freedom, but for the most part is carved in relief upon the supports, the pillars, or the stones, and the figures are usually disproportioned.

The clothed legs and the bare feet are often much reduced in size and occasionally disappear in the foundations. Their pictures of the human frame display a peculiar kind of clothing, now reminding us of flowing robes and now merely showing a waist-cloth. But the torso is nearly always portrayed as clothed with a sleeved garment terminating in a band at the wrist. As in the case of nearly all South American civilisations, the sculptures of San Agustin never display the head bare—from the square helmet to the carefully wound turban we have before us almost all the head-coverings which appear in the gold-work of the Chibchas and the clay figures of the Peruvians.

The realistic character of these heads enables us to form some general conclusions upon the features of this unknown nation. The noses are strongly proportioned with broad cartilages, the cheek-bones are prominent, the lips remarkably protruding and giving an impression of sensuality where this is not the result of the artistic mode of representing the mouth. The eyes, for the most part, are large, with strongly accentuated pupils, of almond shape, covered by eye-brows often well marked. The most carefully carved pillars which formed corresponding pairs display above the head-dress the symbolic picture of an animal, the head of which is broad and rather flat, the body thick, and the tail long and annulated.

The representation has resemblances to the chameleon or to a stumpy lizard; but as it displays many correspondences with memorials of a third race, which have occasionally been considered as apes, but are more properly identified with the puma or American lion, this is probably the correct interpretation here. Lastly, these "protectors of divinity" grasped weighty clubs in their hands; and when the figures of the gods are armed, they, too, carry only clubs and staves. The figures of the gods are far less realistic; the living element in them is constantly overpowered by ornamental

tendencies proceeding from symbolism. Only occasionally are nose and eyes depicted with any reality, and the contour of the face is constantly indicated merely by three small right angles; of this there are many examples in Chibcha gold-work.

The most important feature of the gods is the mouth; this, too, is often drawn at right angles, but almost invariably displays a double row of powerful teeth from which the four eye-teeth in the upper and lower jaws protrude. This peculiar arrangement of teeth depicted in almost all their representations is an important indication for the solution of

the riddle as to the origin of the monuments: it appears again in a large number of clay vessels with faces on them, of Peruvian origin, which have been found in the valleys on the coast-line from Chimu to Santa. If we retrace the conceptions upon which this facial representation was founded, a clay figure from Tiahuanaco leads us to the conclusion that the jaws of the puma were thus depicted. Thus, we are here concerned with a divinity to whom the qualities of this bloodthirsty beast of prey were attributed. An excellent support for this theory is seen in the fact that occasionally even the images of San Agustin hold tiny figures of human victims in their hands, which for that reason must be children who had not yet been destined to sacrifice. These results are also important for the identification of the monuments of the third race. Here the animal in one instance appears with its long annulated tail above a human victim of such small proportions that it holds it in its forearms. In this figure investigators have seen an

ape in the act of copulation; and, as at least two undoubtedly phallic representations have been found in a district of this unknown people, an attempt has been made to connect them with the powers of procreation. But in this case, too, we have to deal with the god incarnate in a sacred animal, the puma, which is devouring the victim that is brought to him. Among similar representations there exists a fish in the hand of a divine figure, and similarly a snake; and in another instance the snake is being devoured by a very realistic owl. The number of sculptured stones around the

ruins of San Agustin is considerable; but in other directions similar stones are found in isolation between the Magdalena River and Popayan, and also in the neighbourhood of this town. In Quito we have no instances of stone sculptures of this character, but all the traditions concerning the worship of the bloodthirsty god Supay and his temples correspond so well with the ruins of San Agustin that earlier relations between these peoples can very well be presumed.

In the middle of Peru the Marañon and the Santa flow for a time northward in two parallel valleys, until they pass through the Cordilleras; here we shall also meet with a civilisation the monuments of which so constantly remind us of San Agustin as to lead us to the conclusion that in ancient times there was one single people of a uniform civilisation which inhabited the high valleys from ten degrees south latitude as far as several degrees north of the equator, and that it is the remains of these that can be observed in the inhabitants of the Santa Valley of Quito and of the upper Magdalena.



THE SUN-GOD OF THE CHIMU PEOPLES

The piece of terracotta here illustrated, showing the sun-god of the ancient peoples of Chimu, was discovered near Trujillo by Mr. T. Hewitt Myring. Its antiquity is undoubted, dating possibly to 5000 B.C.



THE STATES OF THE MAGDALENA AND THE END OF THE CHIBCHA KINGDOM

THE oldest historical traditions of the Chibchas are connected with Sogamoso. A king, Nompánem, is said here to have immediately succeeded Bochica, and to have reduced the teaching of that hero to legal form. But the purity of the old teaching was lost among his successors. Idacansas, related by the legends to have been the most famous ruler of Sogamoso, is said to have kept his subjects in check far more by treachery and deceit than by virtue and valour. In later times we only hear of quarrels for the dominion of Iraca among the different caciques who were subject to the kingdom, and at the time of the conquest the political importance of Sogamoso was entirely overshadowed by Zaque and Zippa.

**In the Days of
the Legendary
Kings & Heroes**

Side by side with Guatabita and Sogamoso, which may be considered as an older group of states, owing to the connection of their historical traditions with their religious ideas, the kingdoms of Zaque of Tunja, and the kingdom of Zippa, or Bogota, form a more recent group of states, founded on a purely political basis. Tradition intimates that they originated in a revolt against the ancient kingdoms. The first ruler of Tunja, or Hunsá, is said to have been set up there by a king of Sogamoso; according to some authorities the capital, Hunsá, was so called from his name Hunsahua, while others assign Ramiriqui as the ancient residence of the rulers of Tunja. At any rate, these rulers, by means of their prowess in war, obtained in a short period not only considerable prestige, but also entire independence. When the kingdom began to extend its boundaries in all directions, its ruler was no longer satisfied with the title "Usaque," which he had hitherto borne, a title which belonged to most of the independent and tributary caciques; he therefore assumed the title of "Zaque," by which the rulers of Hunsá are better

known than by their proper names. Of the successors of Hunsahua but little is told us, and that little is chiefly legendary. For instance, Tomagata is said to have been a kind of human monster with four ears and a long rat's tail, who by means of his piety acquired all kinds of magical powers, which he did not employ for the benefit of his subjects.

Another ruler, whose government lasted until the arrival of the Spaniards in South America, though not in the Chibcha district, has been shrouded in legend. He is said to have sprung directly from the sun, the rays of which made a daughter of the cacique of Guacheta pregnant. As a child of the sun he enjoyed reputation for many years before he gained any temporal power. But when the ruling zaque made himself hated by his people for his tyranny, Garanchacha placed himself at the head of the revolt and easily gained

**A Son
of
the Sun** a victory which at once gave him the position of a zaque. A change of residence from Ramiriqui to Tunja (Hunsá) has been ascribed to him, and the isolated stone pillars, to which reference has been made, have been connected with his rule. He is said to have proposed to build a magnificent temple to his father, the sun-god, in the neighbourhood of Hunsá, and for this reason he had those pillars brought from a distance; they were transported only by night, that the people might believe that the gods themselves created the material for their temples. But before the work was ended news came to the king of the arrival of the Spaniards on the lower Magdalena River, and for this reason the temple building was suspended.

Fully to estimate the value of this tradition it is highly important to observe that a zaque named Garanchacha can find no place in the dynasty of the kings of Tunja, at any rate in so far as their names have been transmitted to us in the histories of the battles with the Zippas.

**A King
of Monster
Shape**

The only kingdom in the Chibcha districts upon the history and civilisation of which we have any detailed information is that of Bogota. Its kings played a part similar to that of the Aztecs in Mexico and the Incas in Peru, and, like them, so attracted the attention of the conquerors that other races and states were wholly disregarded. It is true that even in this case the traditions do not go back very far; and if we consider the entire lack of any aids to the memory we cannot be surprised at the fact. Originally the ruler of Bogota (Bacata) was merely a vassal (usaque) of the king of Guatabita. He was, however, obliged to protect the south-west boundaries of his kingdom from the constant incursions of the savage cannibal Muzos and Panches. The military power developed in these efforts very soon gave him a considerable preponderance over the other usques, and he became, as it were, the generalissimo of the combined forces of Guatabita.

To protect their boundaries the Chibcha rulers in early times formed a special regiment of warriors, the guechas. This force was recruited from the whole dominion, underwent special training under the king's personal observation, and was then stationed on the borders. As the usques, or caciques, were taken exclusively from the warrior caste, the road to high position lay open to every man who could distinguish himself by especial bravery, although, as a rule, the usque nobility stood aloof from the lower orders. A kind of military organisation existed in times of peace; the usques upon the borders were the commanders of the portions of the warrior class there stationed, and brought up their contingents if war broke out in another part of the district, however distant from the boundary entrusted to themselves. For this object the separate usques carried different standards by which they could be recognised both in battle and in camp.

The guechas also had a particular dress assigned to them. Like all members of the Chibcha races, they never wore their head bare. They wore a head-dress not unlike a cap, the hair being closely cropped; and it was a special privilege of their rank to pierce their ears, their nostrils, and their lips. For each enemy that a guecha killed in battle he was allowed to fasten a golden ornament in his under lip, a decoration which considerably increased his

ferocious appearance. The guechas were armed with long spears, axes, slings, and throwing-sticks, from which they could sling short, sharply pointed arrows. A declaration of war, which was generally accompanied with particular formalities, was preceded by weeks of religious ceremonies; then the usques and the guechas put on their most brilliant apparel, which consisted of waving feather garments, gold and precious stones; and they marched out followed by an endless company of women, who conveyed provisions and large quantities of the intoxicating chicha for their use.

It was a peculiar custom to carry with them into battle the mummies of famous warriors; these were borne into the thickest part of the fight upon a richly covered litter surrounded by a chosen band of picked warriors. As in the case of their sacrifices, processions, singing and shouting, the unpleasant din of their instruments played an important part in war. The victory was celebrated with weeks of festivals and dances and rich thank-offerings to the gods; but a defeat, too, was the occasion for expiatory offerings to appease the divinities whose anger had presumably been aroused.

From the band of usques to whom the protection of the southern boundary was entrusted arose, some two centuries before the Spanish arrival, the ruler of Muqueta, who is distinguished with the title of Zippa and Bogota after his kingdom had become the most important in the Chibcha district. He is said to have won his independence from Guatabita by availing himself of a festival at the sacred lake to make an attack. He may have been invited to the festival from motives not wholly disinterested; at any rate, it enabled him to win an easy victory over his master. He next proceeded to extend the boundaries of his kingdom at the expense of the hostile races on the south and west, and his rapid successes soon gave him the preponderance over the other members of the race. Partly by force of arms, and partly by the voluntary help of such provinces as were not satisfied with their own rulers, the Zippa kingdom increased so rapidly that it was soon able to consider itself as uniting the whole Chibcha race under its sway. The usual line of succession among the

**Mummies
Carried
into Battle**

**The
Warrior
Caste**

**An Upstart
Kingdom
of Antiquity**

Chibchas, as among many American peoples, was from uncle to nephew on the sister's side. It was not, however, the royal race of Bogota but the race of usaques of Chia who appointed the Zippa, as appears from the following legend.

The brother of a cacique of Chia had entered upon a liaison with one of the cacique's wives, and when this was discovered and he was threatened with death on the sacrificial mast, he fled to the court of the Zippa. Here he made himself so invaluable by his military capacity that he was appointed to the succession in default of any legal heir. When his brother attained this high position, the ruler of Chia began to fear for his personal safety. Thanks to the intervention of the mother and the sister of the two princes, a compact was made according to which the son of this sister should succeed the cacique of Chia, and should also succeed the Zippa in the event of his death; and this mode of inheritance is said to have endured for all future time. At the bottom of this peculiar custom, which is certainly also found among the Kakchikel, but with a different origin, lies the desire to give greater security to a kingdom composed of many little districts of doubtful fidelity. This could be done by appointing a mighty vassal, and especially a near relation, as the future successor, and by providing him with the means of seizing the power at the critical moment. Everyone who was destined to govern a district, small or large, had to pass through a long period of probation. The test of continence thereby involved had much in common with the probation of the priests; and the priests, too, superintended the ordeal. At the close of it the

ornaments for the ears and nose were put upon the young warrior in token of his high position, and his accession then took place accompanied by the most licentious festivities. The power which a cacique exercised when once he was recognised was practically unlimited. Each usaque possessed in his own province powers

similar to those of his master in his central dominion. To him the usaques owed unconditional obedience, but they had a power of appeal from their master, whereas the ordinary subject had none. The position passed from uncle to nephew, and though each succeeding ruler had to be confirmed in his position by the monarch, yet the latter could only nominate a prince of his own to the throne in the event of a family of caciques becoming extinct, or in case of treachery and rebellion. The gifts and the tribute paid to the

governor did not press heavily upon the people, and consisted chiefly of gold and woven cloth. Arrears, however, were rigorously exacted. In the kingdom of Zaque emeralds formed a costly portion of the tribute. The rich mines of Muzo, which were then in the power of hostile savages, were but little worked. These precious stones formed an important medium of exchange, commerce being carried on side by side with conflict, not only among the several Chibcha states, but also far beyond their boundaries. Almost every third day was a market day, and in particular places in the Chibcha district fairs were held at special times, to

which merchants came in with their special wares from the most remote districts. Long measure and dry measure are said to have been in use; the medium



SPECIMEN OF ANCIENT AYMARA POTTERY

Mansel



AYMARA ART: TERRA-COTTA FIGURES FROM BOGOTA, COLOMBIA

Manvell

In art the Aymara were in advance of most semi-barbarous peoples. Examples of their pottery, given on this and the preceding page, show, both in ornamentation and modelling, that their art had passed the rudimentary stage.

of exchange consisted of a coinage made of fine beaten gold; and interest was paid upon trade debts from the day on which they were contracted. Although in this manner the most beautiful and costly precious stones came into the hands of the Chibchas, yet they themselves undertook mining operations in search of them. In Somondoco traces have been found showing that they knew how to lay bare those veins in the rock which contained the emeralds, and to pick out the veins with sharp instruments until they yielded the precious stones.

During the last half-century before the conquest all the splendours of Chibcha art were concentrated at the courts of the Zaque in Tunja, and Zippa in Bogota. It is true that the palaces of these rulers were constructed of only wood and straw, but the splendid proportions of their design impressed even the Spaniards. A double wall of palisades surrounded the palace quarters, which were of considerable extent, and, being covered with a roof of waterproof tapestry, formed a dry promenade. The outer stockade was interrupted at intervals with masts. It was further decorated with little pieces of gold plate; these moved with every breath of wind, glistened in the sunlight, and made a metallic noise as they clashed together. The interior of the court was kept scrupulously clean, and contained a

**Splendid
Palaces of Wood
and Straw**

large number of rooms wherein the ruler and his court resided and where his treasures were kept. The buildings in which the ruler received his subjects were naturally fitted up at the greatest expense. As in the case of the temples, so also in the palaces of the Zippa, the foundations of the main pillars were laid upon the corpses of victims who were apparently buried alive and crushed to death when the pillar was raised; the offering of their blood to the gods was supposed to preserve the house from ill fortune. The walls were constructed of wood and the roofs of straw, but of these materials nothing was visible from within. The floor was thickly covered with clean mats; the walls and roof were hung with different coloured tapestry, decorated with golden ornaments and richly adorned with precious stones. The ruler sat upon a throne of wood which was richly overlaid with gold, surrounded by the highest priests and dignitaries.

No subject dared approach him without bringing some gift, and then he was allowed to enter only with head bowed and eyes fixed on the floor. He was obliged either to maintain this posture or to turn away from the king as long as he remained in his presence; no one was sufficiently honourable to look him in the face, as to be placed face to face with the monarch was equivalent to a sentence of death. The ruler's feet were never allowed

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to touch the floor; if the necessities of religion or war obliged him to leave his palace, he changed his throne for an open litter, decorated no less richly with gold and precious stones, which was carried on the shoulders of four men. A numerous escort invariably accompanied the monarch. At the head of the procession were

A King with servants who swept the
Two streets before him and laid
Hundred Wives down carpets; then followed a band of musicians and a numerous bodyguard composed of priests and dignitaries. The common people, for whom each exit of the ruler was a festival, brought up the rear.

In the immediate neighbourhood of the palace, though not within its limits, were the dwellings of the king's wives; of these the last Zippa is said to have had as many as two hundred. Only one among these ranked as a legal wife, and her privileges were by no means insignificant; among others she is said to have had the right of enforcing a prescribed period of continence upon her husband at her death. It is related of the wives of the usagues, each of whom is said to have had a considerable number, that they were allowed to punish misconduct in their husbands with stripes, as they were not subject to the laws which governed the common people. Adultery among women was visited with stern punishment upon both them and their paramours; upon mere suspicion, upon an incautious word, the outraged husband might kill his wife.

The position of the ruler, as well as of individual caciques, was inherited by nephews and not by sons, only the personal property of the dead man coming to the wife and children. Among the Chibchas, on the death of the king and the more important dignitaries, certain women and servants also followed them into the other world. The corpse was quickly embalmed and forced into a sitting posture, while

Strange Burial Customs of the Chibchas

the funeral ceremonies went on for days with singing and drinking; then the priests took the corpse by stealth to a secret place and buried it in a deep grave—first the mummy, with its costly raiment and valuable offerings of gold and precious stones, and then, upon a thin covering of earth, were laid the women who were to accompany the dead man. These women were made almost unconscious by means of stupefying drugs, and upon them

more earth was laid and then a number of slaves. The earth was often piled into a mound above the whole. After the burial the funeral lamentations lasted some days longer, being also renewed upon the anniversary; but the general interest was quickly concentrated on the new ruler, who had meanwhile been undergoing the ordeal previously mentioned.

In the year 1470 Saguanmachica sat upon the throne of Bogota. As the rules of the succession ordained, he had governed the district of Chia until his predecessor's death. Even at that time the kingdom of Zippa had attained important dimensions. Saguanmachica, however, contributed not a little by his conquests to gain for it that leading position among the Chibchas which it retained until the arrival of the Spaniards. His predecessors had already turned their arms against the foreign states around them, and had also subdued many of the kindred Chibcha peoples. Saguanmachica attacked the caciques of Fusagasuga on the farther side of the Pasca River and easily won a brilliant victory. But it led to important

Nemequene consequences; the king of
the Great Guatabita felt himself insecure
Zippa King and opened hostilities himself to anticipate a Zippa attack.

Saguanmachica energetically repulsed him and penetrated into the land of Guatabita; but his victorious career was checked by the most powerful Chibcha king, the Zaque Michua, of Hunsa, who came to the help of Guatabita and threatened the boundaries of Bogota.

Neither of these warriors seems to have been prepared for a decisive battle. Affairs relapsed to their former position, and the robber inroads of the neighbouring savage tribes gave the Zippa king so much to do that he was obliged to put off his campaign of revenge against the zaque from year to year. As soon as Saguanmachica had re-established peace upon his borders, he again overran the land of Guatabita and menaced the Hunsa boundaries from that point. But before he reached their country Michua marched against him with a powerful army, and both leaders perished in the furious battle which ensued.

Success finally rested with the Bogota, but, panic-stricken at the death of their king, they eventually relinquished the fruits of victory and returned home. The successor to the Zippa throne was Nemequene, the most important ruler

THE STATES OF THE MAGDALENA

that the land ever possessed. He, too, had previously been cacique of Chia, and his nephew, Tisquesusa, succeeded him in that position. The Fusagasugas, who had recently been subdued, considered this a favourable opportunity to regain their independence; at the same time the Zipaquira, the Nemza, and those hereditary enemies, the savage Panches, made an inroad into the country.

Nemequene showed himself equal to every danger; with one army he repulsed the external enemy while Tisquesusa subdued the rebels with another. After that he took up Saguanmachica's plans for conquest. Guatabita fell into his hands rather by treachery than by force. The people of Guatabita were the cleverest goldsmiths in the Chibcha district; they displayed the highest skill in covering stone figures with finely beaten gold, on which those artistic little engravings peculiar to the Chibcha art were produced, representing men and beasts individually and in groups. Consequently, every king, every usaque, every cacique, was anxious to have one or more of the Guatabita goldsmiths.

Two Warriors for One Goldsmith

But the monarch desired to turn the artistic skill of his subjects to his own advantage, and demanded that two warriors should enter his service in return for every goldsmith that he sent abroad. This fact gave the Zippa his opening.

He and his caciques suddenly expressed a desire for numerous goldsmiths; and the best warriors of Bogota went to the court of Guatabita in their place. There they not only formed a combination among themselves, but by means of persuasion and presents succeeded in winning over numerous allies among the other foreigners. By these means the Zippa got the border fortress of Guasca into his power, and when one day he suddenly appeared before the capital of Guatabita there was no one to oppose him. The king and his escort were killed in the palace, and his territory was incorporated with the kingdom of Bogota, and placed under the government of a brother of Nemequene.

The next object of Nemequene's attacks was the ruler of Ubaque. It was only after several months of fierce warfare that he made his submission to the Zippa and gave him his two daughters to wife; but the conclusion of peace brought a considerable accession of territory to the Zippa kingdom, although he left the ruler

of Ubaque in possession of his dominions as a vassal prince. While Nemequene was thus rounding off the boundaries of his kingdom by these little conquests, a grave danger was threatening its internal peace. The brother of the monarch, who had been made governor of Guatabita, succeeded, partly by treachery and partly by force,

Fate of a Robber Governor

in getting possession of the fortress where the prince of Ubaque kept his rich treasures.

But before the robber could carry off his booty he was surrounded by the troops of the Ubaque, reduced to starvation, and finally killed in an attempt to break through the lines of the besiegers, after throwing the treasures into a neighbouring lake. Though his attack was entirely justified, the Ubaque was afraid of the anger of the Zippa, whose brother, the governor, had been killed. The rich presents which he sent to Nemequene were not received until he had appeared at court to plead his cause in person. But when he related to the monarch a full and truthful account of the circumstances, Nemequene recognised the injustice that his brother had committed, and took no action against the Ubaque.

Nemequene's love of justice was equal to his reputation as a warrior; all the laws that were in force in the Chibcha district at the time of the Spanish conquest were ascribed to him. The number of these regulations was certainly limited, and the punishments assigned were severe. Death in different forms was the punishment for murder, desertion, rape, incest, and sodomy; a coward was clothed in woman's garments and given woman's work to do. The apparel and the ornaments of high rank were forbidden to the common people; only the usagues were allowed to bore their ears and noses for the wearing of ornaments. To be carried in a litter was the exclusive privilege of the king and of those to whom he might

A Rude Law- Giver

grant permission. Among the regulations of the civil law which testify to greater progress in the idea of justice we have the following: The property of a man who died without heirs invariably came to the monarch; if a wife died in childbed, and the child also, the husband was obliged by law to recompense his wife's family, though, however, no such recompense was necessary if the child lived, he being then responsible only for its maintenance.

Throughout his rule Nemequene had never forgotten to prepare for a decisive battle with the Zaque. Quemuenchatocha, a boy aged eighteen years, had succeeded Michua in Tunja, and no doubt it was owing to his youth that war was not begun on his side first. But Nemequene could not resign the traditional claims of his predecessors to supremacy. He therefore, with a powerful army, began the subjugation of the vassals of the Zaque. After his first successes, he sent a message to the Zaque, advising him to recognise his supremacy if he did not wish to risk being driven from his kingdom. But the Zaque was not a man to be easily frightened.

He knew that he might reckon upon the support of all those who, like himself, were threatened with the encroachments of the Zippa; a powerful army soon came to him from the Iraca of Sogamoso. The battle was hotly disputed and for a long time remained indecisive; both monarchs were visible far and wide as they were borne in their gleaming litters above the heads of the multitude, hurrying among the bands of warriors, and exciting them to the highest displays of courage. Then the Zippa advanced too far to the front, and received an enemy's arrow in the breast. In vain did he exhort his men to stand fast. The news spread rapidly through their ranks, and the troops of the Zaque attacked with redoubled vigour, and won a complete victory. The defeated army was finally obliged to return to Bogota after abandoning all its previous conquests, the Zaque making only a show of pursuit.

Nemequene returned to his capital still alive, but five days afterwards he succumbed to his wound. His successor, Tisquesusa, who had already won a high

reputation as governor of Chia, immediately upon his accession resumed the war with the Zaque. His first campaign brought about the subjection of a number of usques who had hitherto been the vassals of the king of Tunja. He was already preparing for a decisive conflict with his adversary when news came to him that an invasion had been made into the Chibcha district by a powerful foreign enemy—the expedition of Queseda and his comrades. Here, as everywhere, the Spaniards won a brilliant victory at the first onset, and this they chiefly owed to the fear which their horses inspired in the natives. Tisquesusa fled into the woods; but his retreat was betrayed and he was crushed. His successor submitted to the foreign enemy. The Zaque awaited the Spaniards in haughty neutrality without offering resistance; for that reason he was not deprived of the throne, but died a natural death soon afterwards.

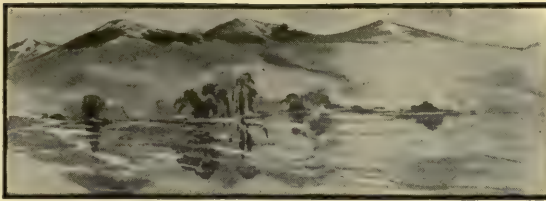
Many of the rulers continued an obstinate resistance; but after the main kingdom had been subjugated to the foreign dominion, their efforts were useless, and only provoked that ferocity which so often stained the Spanish conquests in cases where the natives did not offer a ready submission. Upon the death of Tisquesusa, the loosely organised kingdom of the Chibchas collapsed. The people never again were strong enough to attempt the recovery of their independence. In a very few years the Spaniards obliterated the last traces of the native civilisation, with its peculiar characteristics, as much by their oppression of the natives as by the material improvements which they brought into the empire; their introduction of fresh blood rapidly modified the Chibcha race.

Coming of the Spanish Conquistadors



ANCIENT INCA BRIDGE NEAR GUARANDA

Rau



MIXED RACES OF THE WEST COAST THEIR LIFE, CUSTOMS AND RELIGIONS

AN intersecting system of mountains, where the Magdalena and the Cauca take their rise, is all that separates San Agustín from the most northerly province which belonged to the Inca kingdom at the time of the Spanish conquest. This range stretches uninterruptedly over thirty degrees of latitude, reaching almost everywhere from the coast of the Pacific Ocean to the eastern slope of the Cordilleras, whence numerous streams rush down into the great plains of South America. Here the Spaniards found for the second time a rich and well-organised civilisation in their newly discovered world.

The most mistaken ideas have prevailed until recently concerning the Inca kingdom of Tahuantinsuyu, and, as in Central America, mainly through the fault of the native chroniclers. In Mexico we saw that Don Fernando de Alba Ixtlilxochitl introduced an unhistoric factor into the ancient

**Ancient
Peru in
History**

history of the country in his account of the Toltecs; Garcilaso de la Vega has done the same for the South American provinces, by which we mean the different groups of states which are incorporated in the great Inca kingdom at the end of the fifteenth century; this historian is generally known as "el Inca," in order to distinguish him from other authors of the same name, and in reference to his descent from the royal house of Cuzco.

During the sixteenth century he wrote a history of Peru in which such unbounded and unreasonable confidence has been placed, owing to the author's connection with the natives, that the accounts of other chroniclers of greater impartiality have, until recently, been entirely neglected. The work of Garcilaso is nothing more than an enthusiastic panegyric of the dominion of the ancient native rulers; it displays all their exploits in the clearest light, but sometimes fails to see, or entirely neglects, the shady side of their history. In particular the struggles

which must have endured during thousands of years of previous development are dismissed as being the work of the Incas, although their dominion was only a few centuries old, and although their state was certainly the youngest among the

**Civilisation
Under
the Incas**

different civilisations of South America. The extensive district which was afterwards subjected to the Inca rule contained numerous centres of civilisation from the earliest times. It is as difficult here as in the case of the northern civilisation to decide whether the amount of culture which they all possessed, and which shows their connection with a particular civilisation, enables us to conclude the exact amount of culture that had been attained by the inhabitants before this disruption into separate races and peoples.

In the history of human development the same phenomena continually occur under different circumstances; and care must be exercised in deciding whether coincidences and connections belong to a previous relationship or are rather results of earlier collateral influences. If such an early relationship existed at all, it must at any rate be referred to times earlier than the foundation of the kingdom of Peru, which is said to have taken place at the beginning of the Christian era.

This tradition is due to the influence of that desire so remarkable among the Mexican chroniclers to make the history of their own country synchronise with the history of the Old World. The different civilisations within the Inca kingdom were

**Light
on Ancient
Races**

situated in districts inhabited by at least three races which can be clearly distinguished on linguistic grounds. Geographical causes gave such a peculiar character to the development of each of these that the possibility of their common origin is counterbalanced by the difference in their monuments. Perhaps closer relations existed between special groups

of these nations. The kingdoms of Quito, of Chanchan, and the more southern provinces on the coast, seem to have been in closer connection with one another than with the Peruvians of the highlands, the Quechua and Aymara. It can hardly be doubted that these latter were the originators of that civilisation which the Incas

later made the common property of all their subjects. In recent times the Aymara ran the risk of having a part ascribed to them in South America similar to that which was attributed to the Toltecs in Central America.

Early settlements on the most northern boundary of this civilised district have been ascribed to them, and to the influence of their migrations has been attributed all traces of unusual culture which have been discovered from Colombia as far south as Chili and beyond the eastern Cordilleras into the Argentine district of Catamarca. On the other hand, we may consider it as proved that the Aymara were the authors of the remains of a particular civilisation, and one by no means despicable, existing upon the south-east of Tahuantinsuyu around the lake of Titicaca. We may also ascribe to the influence of this ancient civilisation the existence of the fine, artistically wrought pottery that has been brought to light upon the borders of Gran Chaco, now almost inaccessible to the white man, in a district that has been inhabited only by nomad Indians within human memory. This pottery displays ornamentation, not only in colours but also in modelling, of a kind that has been met with but rarely without the boundaries of the ancient civilised peoples.

But the peculiarities of the Aymara civilisation are so distinct and so entirely consequent upon the geographical conditions of their early home that they do not justify us in attributing the origin of all civilisation exclusively to this people.

That of the Aymara must rather be considered with the civilisation of the Quito and of the Yunga as merely one of the factors which go to make up the general picture of South American civilisation. Among those states which were incorporated with the Inca kingdom at the time of the Spanish conquest, but which could point to a long period of independent development, the most northerly was Quito. Its inhabitants were called Cara.

Evolution of the Quito State

They did not, however, consider their origin to have been in this district, but supposed themselves to have invaded, between the ninth and tenth centuries of our era, the territory which they possessed about the sixteenth century. Here they founded a new state. They were by no means certain of their original home.

Migrating from a southerly district, they are said to have followed the coast to the Pacific Ocean; they then entered the province of Manta, somewhat inland, but continued their migrations along the coast-land, which offered but few attractions for settlement. Finally, the Esmeralda River enabled them to gain the richer and healthier valleys of the mountains. The population in these was dense, but uncivilised, and could offer no lasting resistance to the more highly developed military skill of the Cara, and about the year 1000 a king named Quito firmly established their rule. He created the organisation of the country, one of those close oligarchical monarchies which are found almost everywhere among the early races of America. He introduced the worship of the sun and moon among all

the peoples he subjugated, and was the founder of a dynasty which ruled for several centuries over the Quito kingdom.

His successors at first proceeded to extend the boundaries of the kingdom upon the north; the peoples in that direction were as primitive as those which had been subjugated in the centre of the kingdom, and conquest in this direction was limited only by the difficulty of establishing lines of communication with their base of operations.

Matters were different toward the south. The later Scyris, the kings of Quito, soon began to turn their arms in that direction, but in the well-organised state of Puruha they soon met with a resistance which entirely barred their progress. After the two rulers had measured their strength, with indecisive results to either side, they concluded a treaty which was to do away with all possibility of hostilities for the future. Up till now the throne of Quito had descended eleven times from father to son, or, failing an immediate heir, from uncle to nephew, according to the custom of the land. Chance then brought it about that the Scyri possessed neither son nor nephew to take up the reins of government, but only a daughter. At such a conjuncture the princes and

Dynasty Founded by Quito

MIXED RACES OF THE WEST COAST

caciques of the realm had the right to elect a new Scyri; but the king was able to persuade them to alter these rules for the succession, and made a compact with the king of Puruha according to which his son was to marry the princess and ascend the throne of Quito, thereby fusing the two kingdoms into one. In this newly formed kingdom the town of Quito remained the capital, and all the more so as upon the southward the clouds of Peruvian conquest began to lower threateningly.

Quito was a kingdom not only extensive and rich, but also well organised and civilised—a prize to excite the desires of any monarch anxious for conquest. Though the Cara did not understand, as the Peruvians did, the art of laying down high-roads and building bridges in their country, they were by no means despicable architects. The king had laid out gardens and built palaces in Liribamba among a number of little lakes connected by canals; and these formed not only a royal palace worthy of a mighty prince, but also a strong fortress in which an army of thousands of warriors might offer

The Cara and Puruha in Warfare a vigorous resistance to their opponents. The soldiers of the Cara and Puruha were armed only with spear and sling, but they used these weapons with most astonishing accuracy, as the Inca warriors were to learn when their turn came.

Prowess in war had become somewhat impaired under the later Scyris; a generation of peace had produced much advance in wealth and material comforts, but had not called forth the fierce virtues of war. Consequently, when the Inca Tupak Yupanki first turned his arms against the Quito he met with but little resistance. The outlying provinces, which were only loosely connected with the kingdom, were for the most part won over by the promises of peace which the Inca held out to them as he advanced threateningly at the head of his veteran army.

When Tupak Yupanki invaded the kingdom of Puruha every step of progress was bought at the price of blood; but when the Scyri general, trusting to superior numbers, gave battle in the open, he suffered such a decisive defeat that the Inca gained possession of all Puruha almost without striking another blow. However, he did not at once invade the district of Quito; after establishing garrisons in the territory he had

conquered he returned to Cuzco in 1460, as his attention was claimed elsewhere. The Scyri died a few years after these events. His life had been peaceful, and he had grown old, before the attack of Tupak Yupanki had invested him with heavier responsibilities at a time when he was not strong enough to resist. But a year of battles had aroused those qualities in his son for which his ancestors had been distinguished. As soon as he had obtained possession of his father's kingdom he began a campaign against the invaders; and although he did not succeed in regaining the whole extent of his kingdom, yet he rapidly drove the Inca-Peruvians out of that district which had formed the nucleus of his father's realm. Many years passed before the Incas again turned their eyes northward.

At last, in the year 1475, Huaina Capak appeared on the boundaries of Quito, but found them better guarded than they had been in the time of Tupak Yupanki. The Puruha had strongly fortified the bank of the Achupalla; and the un-failing accuracy of their slingers wrought terrible havoc in the ranks of the enemy and entirely neutralised their superiority in tactics and armament. But the Inca obtained by treachery what he could not win by force of arms; on this occasion, also, promises of peace made a great impression upon the subjects of the proud Scyri, and before the powerful Inca army many caciques began to waver. Treachery of this kind revealed an unfortified ford over the Achupalla; and when once the river had been crossed the Puruhas were obliged to evacuate their fortress and retreat.

They again attempted to oppose the Peruvians, but so decisive was their defeat, and so general the desertion of their vassals, that the Scyri was obliged to abandon almost the whole territory, with his capital, Quito, and his summer residence, Liribamba. He fled to Hatun

The Scyri Dies Fighting Taqui, in the country of Otambalo, and, after unconditionally rejecting the propositions of peace which the Inca held out,

he perished fighting for the last remains of his kingdom. Huaina Capak then considered that his conquests were complete. But immediately after the death of the Scyri resistance was renewed around the person of Paccha, the daughter and heiress of the king. She did not openly oppose the Inca's power, but she made it clearly

understood that new dangers would be continually threatening him from her. In order to win her over without bloodshed, he added her to the number of his legal wives. As Quito and Puruha had formerly been united by this means, he incorporated the country with his own kingdom, and the histories of the two states are henceforward indissolubly united.

If the Cara of Quito had really migrated northward from another people on the coast of the Pacific Ocean, as their legend relates, this people must have been the Muchik, who are called Yunga by the Inca-Peruvians, the Chimu by the Spaniards. From the Gulf of Guayaquil southward to the neighbourhood of the modern Callao the whole seaboard had long been in their power. Farther southward people speaking another language and with another political centre were situated on the borders of the provinces of the Chimu kingdom. Their civilisation, however, showed so many points of resemblance to that of their more northern neighbours that the Incas denoted all the

peoples on the coast by the collective name of Yunga; moreover, between the peoples of the northern and the southern coast political relations were so close that it is impossible accurately to divide the little that is known of their histories.

The very fact that an important group of states could be developed on the coast of Peru is evidence that this people had made considerable strides in their

**States on
the Coast
of Peru**

struggle for existence; or the country over which the Chimu kingdom extended was certainly unfavourable to a dense population. The ground of the narrow coast-line between the spurs of the Cordilleras and the sea is not wholly barren; but there is an almost entire lack of rainfall, and the burning rays of the tropical sun have made the country nearly a desert. Oases exist here and there, where the rapid torrents that flow down from the neighbouring range bring sufficient moisture with them to support some vegetable life. These rivers, in their unchecked fury, are even dangerous to mankind.



REMARKABLE POTTERY FOUND IN A CHIMU TOMB

Of all the ancient pottery discovered in America this wonderfully preserved Greek-like head, found in a Chimu tomb in Peru, is without doubt the most beautiful. It is the gem of Mr. T. Hewitt Myring's recently made collection. The head-dress probably indicates that it represents an influential priest or a wealthy law-giver. The strong suggestion of Græco-Egyptian art certainly gives considerable support to the theory of an early intercourse with the East.



THE BURIAL CUSTOMS OF ANCIENT AMERICA

The custom of preserving the bodies of the dead prevailed largely among the early peoples of America. The first illustration shows a mummified body prepared for burial, the ball at the top representing the face, which is covered with a red material, over which is thrown a primitive wig. In the second picture is seen the body as it actually reposes inside the case.

During the dry season the thirsty ground so entirely absorbs the moisture that often no single drop reaches the sea ; but when a thunderstorm bursts with tropical fury above the spurs of the Cordilleras the rivers rise high above their banks in a few hours, and in their resistless course sweep away every barrier to their power. The period must have been long before man sought a refuge in this dangerous strip of country ; but he succeeded in overcoming all difficulties and in wresting from Nature the means to support a population far more numerous than that of to-day. For this the extensive remains of the ancient towns which are to be found at the mouth of almost every valley leading from the mountains to the sea are evidence.

Man's Fight with Nature

The first requirement for a lasting settlement of the country was the power of controlling the water. The people that settled there may have had experience in their earlier home in the art of draining, an art widely diffused of old in the mountainous districts of Peru, and practised here, at any rate, with brilliant success.

Where the river passed from the mountains to the plain it was divided or drawn off in great canals which followed the course of the river and led into a complication of smaller tributaries. By this means of irrigation a much larger extent of country could be cultivated for maize, sweet potatoes, yuccas, and cotton, and also the great danger of inundation was overcome. The labyrinth of water-courses broke the power of the flood and turned the extraordinary fury of the rivers into an extraordinary blessing for the land.

A further evidence for the agricultural activities of the coast peoples is their knowledge of the excellent effects of guano. As guano was used for manure by the Inca-Peruvians, they must have learned its value from the coast races, who possessed inexhaustible supplies of this article, for they alone were sufficiently skilled in navigation to import it from the islands. It is certain that at the earliest times only individual valleys

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A TOMB OF THE ANCIENT AMERICANS IN THE SANTA VALLEY

on the coast were populated, and as the long, wild stretches of sand which separate the belts of vegetation around the river courses from one another made communication by land almost impossible, these individual settlements lived for a long time in complete isolation. But the more the population increased in such an oasis the more urgent became the necessity of bringing new portions of land under cultivation. As differences of climate, and the hostility between the mountain and the coast peoples, confined these river settlements within exceedingly narrow limits, the Yunga sought along the sea-coast for fresh districts which were capable of cultivation, and gradually obtained possession of almost all the valleys which run down from the Cordilleras.

According to tradition their extensions of territory were made from the north southward. Against this there are archæo-

logical reasons. We have already noticed a tradition of migration from the south among the Cara of Quito; it would be difficult to explain the relationship between their civilisation and that of San Agustín with the civilisation of Central Peru if the centre from which these movements proceeded was situated in the neighbourhood of Guayaquil. And as the Chimú peoples extended their dominion no farther south than Lima, how is it possible that a civilisation similar down to the smallest details could have occurred in districts even farther south? It is much more probable that the settlements on the coast proceeded from the south and drove the northern people more and more into their civilised districts, or pushed them northward away from the coast-line into the mountains. At any rate, there was a uniform zone of civilisation in existence at an early period, which embraced the



STRIKING EXAMPLES OF ANCIENT CHIMU POTTERY

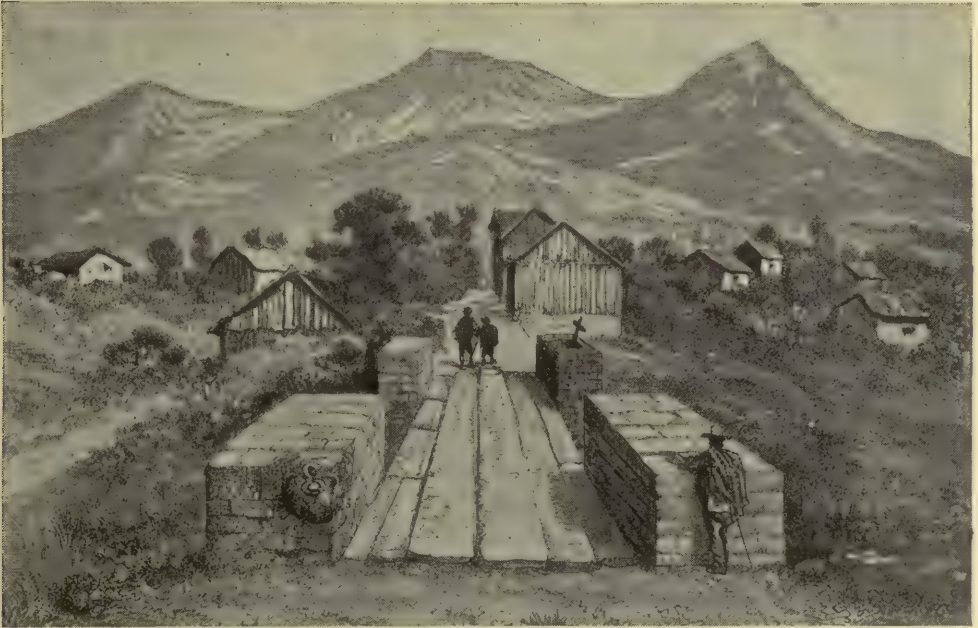
The artistic powers of the ancient Peruvians were almost exclusively devoted to their pottery. The examples given above, discovered by Mr. T. Hewitt Myring in the Chimú valleys, display a remarkable taste in decoration and modelling.

THE MIXED RACES OF THE WEST COAST

coast-land from Rio Maule as far as the Gulf of Guayaquil and contained certain highland races upon the north-east. This civilisation was ancient, and had begun to fade before the Incas became important in the highland.

Individual kingdoms and races broke away from the community; no political unity ever existed. The unities of religion and language disappeared under local influences, until a new centre of power was formed near the northern boundaries in the valley of Chimu. Here a number of powerful kings undertook to proceed in a contrary direction and extend their power

and Huacho became incorporated in the Chimu kingdom partly individually and partly in groups which had enjoyed a uniform civilisation for a long time. On the south the priestly state of Pachacamak, which was tributary to the Cuismancu, and the group of valleys which was ruled by the Chupimancu, formed smaller states; either they were obliged to offer an armed resistance to the Chimu conquest, or, like Pachacamak, they owed their further independence probably to the reverence paid to their temple towns. At any rate, they display rich and carefully decorated ruins of that old civilisation which had



AN INCA-PERUVIAN STONE BRIDGE IN THE SANTA VALLEY

In architecture the Inca-Peruvians were considerably in advance of their American forerunners. In the absence of fords, most of their more important rivers were crossed at various points by bridges of stone, which were built with a singular degree of mathematical precision and accuracy. Where stone bridges were impracticable, as in mountain ranges, suspension bridges of hempen rope and woven lianas took their places.

southward, and again to unite in a political unity peoples already closely related. This course of events was in progress along the coast when the Incas began a similar career of conquest in the highland. Recollections of this, which were still fresh at the time of the Spanish conquest, are the cause of the mistaken idea that the civilisation of the coast-land proceeded in the same direction. In the sixteenth century it was perfectly well known that the kings of Chimu had extended their power southward and subdued a number of smaller states. Thus, the valleys of Viru. Santa, Nepeña, Huarmey, Supe,

attained such a high and uniform pitch of civilisation and culture upon the north and south of the Chimu kingdom.

Both before and at the time of the Incas the coast district must have been extremely thickly populated. Chanchan, the capital of the Chimu kingdom, in the neighbourhood of the modern Trujillo, is by no means the only site which has an area of about 250 acres. Ruined sites of equal size are situated in Pachacamak and in Huadca; and the cemetery of Ancon, near Lima, an inexhaustible hunting-ground for Peruvian antiquities, also points to a long-continued and dense population of the country.



FUNERAL POTTERY OF THE ANCIENT CHIMU



PORTRAIT HEADS IN TERRACOTTA FROM EARLY PERUVIAN GRAVES

PERUVIAN POTTERY OLDER THAN THE INCA CIVILISATION

At different times examples of an early Peruvian pottery, much ante-dating the Inca civilisation, have come to light, but the finest and most complete collection is that which Mr. T. Hewitt Myring took to England in April, 1909, numbering over 1,000 specimens, all in a fine and undamaged condition. They were found in Huacho tombs, dating from the extraordinary Chimu civilisation, one authority placing them at the latest 5000 B.C. The examples given above show a wonderful power of realistic expression, the quality of the work varying with the wealth of the deceased.



PAINTED TERRACOTTAS FROM THE TOMBS OF EARLY PERU



MISCELLANEOUS CHIMU FUNERAL POTTERY, PERHAPS 7,000 YEARS OLD

OTHER ADMIRABLE EXAMPLES OF THE EARLY PERUVIAN POTTERY

More of the fine Huacho terracottas discovered by Mr. Myring. Their splendid condition is due to the rainless climate of the Chimú valleys, the absolute dryness preventing injurious chemical action. The painted terracottas probably come from tombs of persons unable to afford the sculptor's or modeller's fee. Below are various pieces of funeral pottery, including clever bird representations, especially the sacred owl, and three of the open vases with false bottoms which are very frequently found. In all cases the false bottom contains a piece of gold or silver.

Almost all these sites are of similar appearance, since most of the buildings in the extensive ruins are right-angled in construction and disposed at right angles to one another. As the coast does not provide sufficient stone or wood to be used as building material, the coast peoples erected their buildings for the most part

of little bricks made chiefly of pounded clay. The walls in consequence had to be made of considerable thickness; but the breadth decreased towards the top, so that the roofs and ceilings were wider than the floors. This was the case, at any rate, with the temples and palaces, the only buildings of which the walls display traces of decoration in the form of ornamental stucco-work. Concerning the mode of roofing, we can only draw doubtful conclusions. The few roofs that remain are

also composed of worked clay; but the great halls which exist among the ruins can hardly have been covered by such perishable means. Windows were entirely unknown; the rooms were generally built around a court, and air and light were admitted by the door, which often took up the whole of the front side. The most important ruins, however, are not dwelling-

houses. These would be made of clay for the chief classes; the houses of the common people must have been made of reeds and canes, as wood was entirely lacking. The extensive ruins of walls, which can still be seen to have embraced the ancient cities, are partly the great walls of defence of which most towns possessed a double

row with entrances at the angles, and are partly the weaker walls which divided the town into a number of districts like courts; these are supposed to have been inhabited in common by particular clans and also by officials. The palaces and temples seem for the most part to have been erected around the circumference of the town; in the case of temples we constantly meet with terraces rising in steps, the walls of which were interrupted now and then by rooms

and were built of brick, the interior being filled with rubble. Many of the temple pyramids also served as tombs, but only for the kings and the highest priests. Extensive cemeteries like that of Ancon are to be found in many places, particularly on the south of the Chimu kingdom. Here the mummies were placed, fastened in a sitting position, sometimes alone, sometimes in



ANCIENT PILLARS NEAR TIAHUANACO
The origin and use of these relics are unknown, but they were probably connected with Titicaca civilisation.



A STONE GIANT DISCOVERED ON THE SHORES OF LAKE TITICACA



EXAMPLES OF THE ADVANCED SCULPTURE OF PRIMITIVE SOUTH AMERICA

Although much of the sculpture which has been discovered in the Inca kingdom is often attributed to the Incas, it is probably the remains of a much earlier and less known race of people who inhabited these regions. Among the Incas, sculpture was almost entirely forbidden, and in their buildings it was rarely that any decorative carvings found a place.

groups, in vaulted graves, or in enormous jars, occasionally with no protection at all, and often in tiers one upon the other, but always decorated as well as possible and provided with the implements of their earthly profession. Often, however, a common man could not afford the expense of such a resting-place; he buried

The Moon as the Chimu's Chief Deity

A people who showed such piety towards their dead must naturally have believed in a future life corresponding in some degree to their earthly existence.

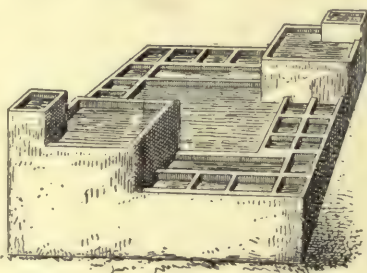
We can hardly conceive that a people upon whose notice the destructive powers of the sun were so constantly forced as they were upon the inhabitants of the Peruvian coast should have made sun-worship the central point of their religion; it is intelligible that they should have regarded water as the chief object of their veneration, for their livelihood depended entirely upon its beneficent influences. The Chimu are certainly said to have revered the moon as their chief deity, and also the Pleiades and the three stars which form Orion's belt. But they also considered

the sea to be a divine power, which helps to feed men with its fish, makes communication possible between nations, and moderates the sun's destructive glow with its refreshing breeze. A similar worship, either of the sea or of water of some kind, is spread over the whole coast-line. Fishes also obtained reverence, as being created by the water; the god of Pachacamak, the chief divinity of the whole coast district, was depicted with a fish's tail.

In Pachacamak we find a body of religious conceptions which proceed from different sources. In the highlands of Peru we shall presently meet with a widely extended worship which displays much affinity with the Quetzalcoatl-Kukulkan of Central America. Originally perhaps a sun-god, he had become so entirely anthropomorphic in course of time, that the people thought of him only in his human form as a law-giver and a civiliser, and as in opposition to the sun-worship of the

Incas. The Pachacamak of the coast peoples was originally a similar divinity; as the son of Con he is mythologically connected with the highland god and represents the same idea, the origin of all created things, including probably the idea of divinity, since all other deities are only emanations from him. On the coast the elements of the water-worship were brought into connection with him; thus he spreads his cloak upon the waves as a boat and passes out of sight over the sea, or in the roaring of the stream he delivers oracles as Rimak (the rushing one). Consequently, he could be represented with a fish's tail, and the fish, as being his symbol, was regarded as a fetish.

Phallic worship has also been ascribed to the Chimu; figures of clay found in the coast provinces seem to confirm the theory. The peoples on the coast were also peoples of decaying civilisation, among whom such conceptions invariably recur.



COUNTER FOUND IN CHACUNA

They had not only become rich, but so corrupted by excess of prosperity that their civilisation, although in many respects it was not only equal but considerably superior to that of the highland people, collapsed before their onset. The first inhabitants of Peru with whom the Spaniards met were Chimu Indians who

had ventured a considerable distance from the coast in their rude vessels. As the stretches of land which divided the separate coast valleys from one another were incapable of cultivation, that communication between the towns, which their size and prosperity would have led us to expect, could not be carried on by land. The migration legends speak of the first inhabitants of almost all the coast-land as having come from the sea; and the con-

quests of the Chimu, to whom the llama of the mountains was unknown, can have taken place only by sea. Wood, however, was lacking just as much for shipbuilding as for architecture, and the canoe, so widely employed in other parts of America, was unknown on the Peruvian coast.

The Chimu and Yunga used a kind of raft which rested on strong bundles of canes, the air contained in the canes giving it sufficient buoyancy. On the coast of



A TEMPLE OF THE SUN ON THE ISLAND OF TITICACA



STANDING STONES AT TARATO NEAR TO LAKE TITICACA



RUINS OF INCA MONUMENTS IN THE NEIGHBOURHOOD OF TIAHUANACO

REMAINS OF THE INCA CIVILISATION IN BOLIVIA

Peru the Pacific Ocean fully justifies its name, and thus by these primitive means a constant communication, attended with little danger, could be carried on. Those vessels, similar in construction, which the inhabitants on the lake of Titicaca used, were no doubt built for the first time by colonists from the coast district who had

Races Under the Inca Dominion

been transported thither after the Inca conquest; for Nature there offered material far more suitable for shipbuilding in the mighty trees which were apparently employed by the exponents of the oldest civilisation, the builders of Tiahuanaco.

The races of the coast-line came under the Inca dominion at different times. Pachacutec had already subdued the valleys on the south without encountering any obstinate resistance. Similarly, in later times, Cuismanco and Chupimancu gave in their submission to the Inca-Peruvians at the first demand, hoping with their help to escape the oppressive dominion with which the Chimu kings threatened them. The sacred town of Pachacamak also submitted to the Inca without bloodshed; for the Inca had already learned to attract the adherence of other peoples by religious toleration.

Near the temple of Pachacamak they erected a new and more splendid building for the sun, but they also made offerings to the god of the conquered people, and for this the priests expressed their thanks in favourable prophecies. From this point the Incas and the Chimu came into collision, but after long and bloody battles the fortune of war enabled the Inca Tupak Yupanki to advance, after his first campaign against the Quito, towards the centre of the Chimu kingdom, the town of Chanchan in the valley of Otuzco. The ruler of the kingdom continued to offer a despairing resistance, but his satraps abandoned him one after the other, and bought the favour of the Inca by their submission,

The Chimu's Submission to the Incas

and when he threatened to interrupt the flow of water to the coast, the Chimu saw the uselessness of further resistance, and unconditionally surrendered himself and his kingdom on the field of Cajamarca. In at least two places on the highlands of Peru, before the times of the Incas, a civilisation existed which had attained a considerable pitch of development. In the centre of Peru, where the Santa River runs for a long distance parallel with the

Marañon River between the dark slopes and the snow-white peaks of the Cordilleras, until the former stream turns aside to the Pacific Ocean, a powerful, warlike people, who were also acquainted with the arts of peace, founded a great kingdom.

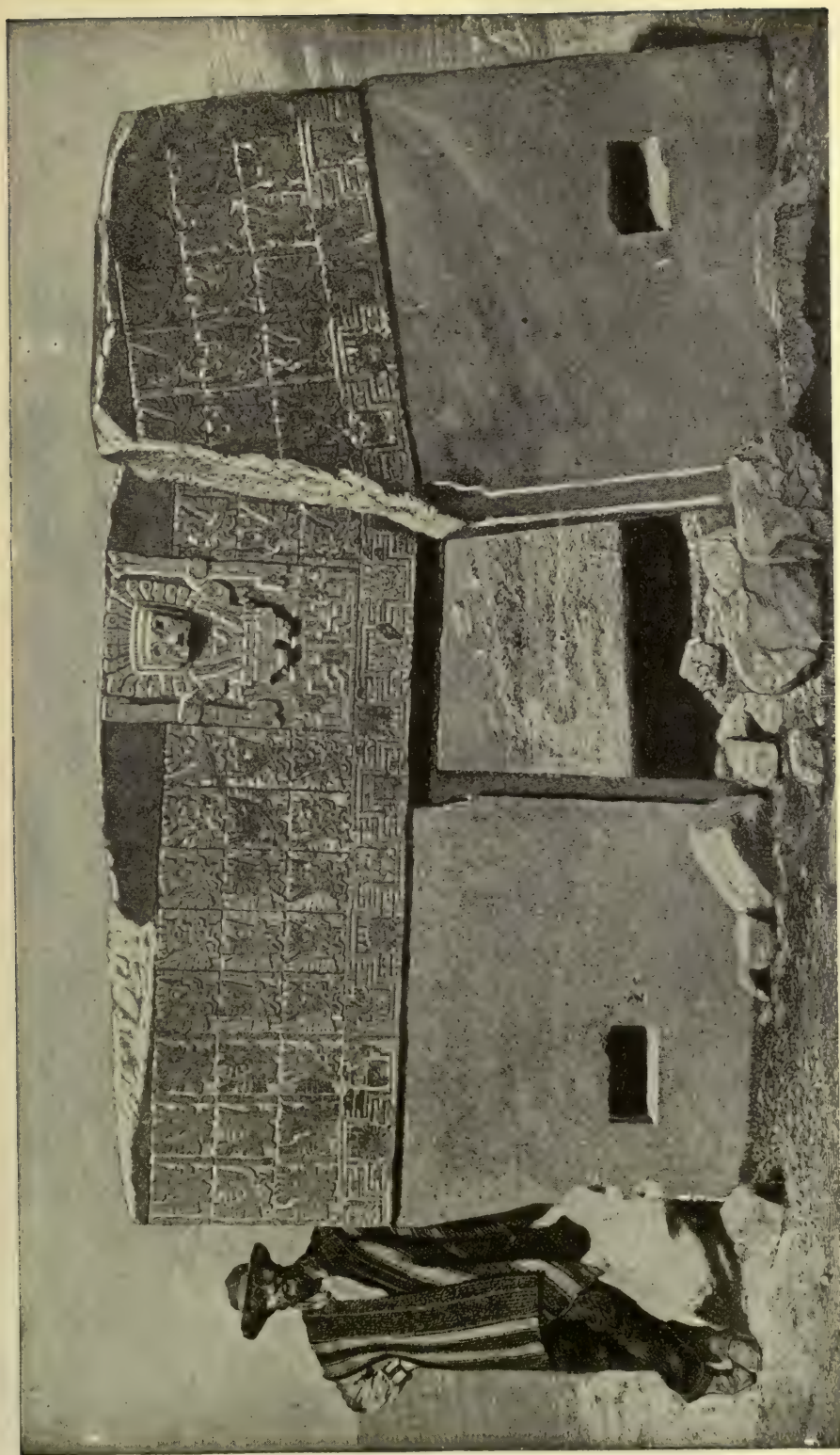
Historical traditions give us practically no information about this; it must remain doubtful for the present whether the Cuismanco of Conchucos, already mentioned, is not the result of some apparent misunderstanding. Conchucos, which is situated on a little tributary of the Marañon, does at any rate belong to this civilisation; and the ruins of Sipá, which are not far distant, with its great tombs formed out of cubical stone blocks, is one of the most interesting points whence a conception can be gained of the manner in which this race developed.

The kingdom of the Cuismanco, which was subdued without opposition by the Inca Tupak Yupanki on his campaign against the Chimu, is placed by most chroniclers upon the coast; and the central point of the kingdom of which Conchucos formed a part did not lie on the Marañon, but in

Architecture in the Santa Valley

the Santa valley, the upper portion of which, notwithstanding the bleak aspect and the unfruitful nature of its highlands, contained the capital of the country, known by the Peruvians as Puna. Proceeding up stream the traveller arrives at Huaraz, Chavin de Huantar, and finally at the watershed at the sources of the Pasco; in Huanaco there are traces of ancient towns, fortresses and temples which certainly have strong affinities with one another and with the ruins existing in the valley of the Marañon, but show strong points of difference from those in the neighbouring district.

The people of the Santa Valley had attained considerable skill in architecture, no doubt partly through the influence of their geographical situation. The mountains afforded them admirable material of granite and sandstone, which the torrents brought down in blocks and slabs to the very gates of their town when the melting of the snows sent the streams roaring down to the lowland. Their art, however, had long passed the stage of merely employing material ready to hand. They understood how to work their stones carefully; they laid them upon beds of mortar which have endured for hundreds of years; and the enormous cubes of



AN ARCHITECTURAL RELIC OF THE ANCIENT PERUVIANS: THE MONOLITHIC GATE OF AK-KAPANA IN PERU

Of all the remarkable architectural relics of the ancient Peruvians the most extraordinary is the Monolith Gate shown above, forming, as it originally did, the boundary stone, or entrance, to a sacred enclosure. The rich sculptured decorations which adorn it represent the god Huiracocha, in his capacity as the bringer of light and the awakener of life, receiving adoration from the high priests. The heaviest and largest of all gates in existence, close examination shows that the design is conceived from the "weaving" pattern of the early Peruvian pottery.

which their temple walls are partly built can have been laid in position only through long experience in the art of transporting heavy masses. The most important of their sites is Huanuco. But as the place was already populated with Inca-Peruvians we cannot decide so easily in this case as we can in others which elements

The Famous Temple of Chavin are of Peruvian origin and which belong to the ancient civilisation. On the other hand, Chavin de Huantar, with its famous temple, was destroyed and abandoned by the Incas. The temple is said to have been built with no less than five storeys of rooms and corridors ; it stands so close to the mountain wall that it has been thought to be partly underground, although its foundations undoubtedly rested upon the surface of the valley.

A characteristic feature is that its sanctuaries are all plunged in darkness, no sun-beam ever entering the sacred chamber ; in these chambers we again find pictures of the gods with a double row of grinning teeth, which terminate at either extremity with the two overlapping fangs. We have already seen in the case of San Agustin that this arrangement of the teeth originated from the puma. The theory is again confirmed by the fact that the puma continually recurs to an extraordinary extent among the sculptures of Chavin, Huaraz, and Huanuco, and is occasionally apparent in place-names, such as Pumacayan, Pumacancha. The sculptures of the Santa Valley also remind us of those of San Agustin in so far as the proportions of the human frame are reduced and the head is sculptured in ornamental style. This can be no chance coincidence.

The kings of this territory pushed forward their boundaries to the coast at the point where the Santa River emerges from the Cordilleras, and, a little before its entry into the coast plains, remains are to be found of temples and fortifications built of granite blocks like those in the upper valley. The same remark applies to the valleys of Casma and Nepeña.

Temples Destroyed by the Incas The large number of fortifications invites the theory that there was a continual state of war between the rulers of the highlands and the kings of Chimu, who were in possession of the coast. But the utter destruction which is unmistakably visible in the temple ruins of Mojeque in the Casma Valley, and of Chavin in the

Santa Valley, must be ascribed, not to the Chimu, but to the Incas. After their conquests they took all possible pains to destroy the seats of the gloomy worship which the peoples of the Santa Valley carried on, and to introduce in its place the worship of their sun-god.

The second district of highland civilisation before the time of the Incas has been more closely examined, and here tradition is not entirely silent. Its site is upon the southern and western shores of the lake of Titicaca, and its most splendid ruins are those of Tiahuanaco. The many questions which research in this district has raised will probably never be answered. It is pretty certain that it was an ancient nation of the Aymara race which erected these buildings. One portion of the ruins which bears the name Ak-Kapana was certainly a temple enclosure, consisting of a terrace in the form of a pyramid of moderate height, at the foot of which was a sacred enclosure of stone pillars. In the case of Ak-Kapana these pillars enclose a square room, while similar constructions in the neighbourhood of the lake of Umayo

The Splendid Ruins at Tiahuanaco are circular ; but we may consider them both identical. Whether these erections have anything to do with stone-worship, which was widely spread in this district of the Peruvian highlands, is very doubtful ; the ruins of Tiahuanaco are evidence against rather than for the theory.

At any rate, the gods that were worshipped here were certainly conceived as being of human form. Evidence of this fact exists in the remains of statues which are still to be found among the ruins ; of these, according to the ancient chroniclers, there must have been a much greater number in earlier times. The statues of this ancient epoch, with their artistic stiffness, remind us of those of Chavin and San Agustin. Here also, as in the case of all peoples not fully developed, we find an excessive preponderance of the symbolic and a devotion to a particular style which entirely preclude any attempt at realism. But the gods of Tiahuanaco were other and milder than those of the afore-mentioned civilisation ; their human forms are not the same, and, moreover, their worship was hidden from the light of day.

Tiahuanaco holds also an important position in the domain of architecture. Extensive as the ruins are, not a single closed building is to be seen. That the



A CHIMU MUMMY IN A SITTING ATTITUDE



A COLLECTION OF MUMMIES IN A CHIMU CEMETERY

The Chimú peoples had a great reverence for their dead. Dotted over their kingdom were extensive cemeteries where the mummies were placed in a sitting position, as shown in the above illustrations. Sometimes they were deposited in their vaulted graves in groups, sometimes alone, and often with no protection at all. Decorated as well as the means of their surviving relatives would allow, they were often provided with the earthly implements of their profession.

THE CHIMU PEOPLES' METHODS OF BURYING THE DEAD

architects were able to erect such buildings of several storeys is proved by a block upon which the facade of a two-storied building has been carved as a model. But the great blocks of stone lie about like those in Pumapungu, the other ruined town of Tiahuanaco, and certainly never formed a building. Many stones have

Ancient Monolith Gates

undoubtedly been worked according to plan, and prepared for fitting in with other stones, but nothing can be constructed out of the whole. Certainly the monolith gates which have earlier attracted particular attention must not be considered as part of the building, but, like the Egyptian pylons, as boundary stones and entrances to the sacred enclosure, as can be seen from their situation in Ak-Kapana.

The most remarkable of these gateways also belongs to this enclosure. If it is not the most massive of the blocks scattered about Tiahuanaco, it is the largest and the heaviest of all the gates in existence, and at the same time is the only one which has been adorned with rich sculptured decorations. Its sculptures are conceived in a style known to us from other Peruvian patterns—those, for instance, used in weaving—and it shows a large picture of a god in its centre, apparently receiving adoration from side figures.

From certain appendages upon and near the figures it has been concluded that the picture has reference to the worship of Huiracocha; and as this or a similar worship was universal among the other peoples of Peru, on the highland as well as on the coast, we need not be surprised at finding traces of it in a memorial which must have belonged to the most ancient Peruvian civilisation. Huiracocha—or in the fuller form, which occurs at times, Con-Ticsi-Huiracocha—was also originally a sun-god, but in his capacity as the bringer of light and awakener of life he became in course of time the creator of mankind and the father of all civilisation.

Widespread Worship of Huiracocha

In this character he himself or his messengers passed through all the districts of Peru from Tiahuanaco onward, bringing the arts of peace and civilising the people, until at last he disappeared in the far north on the shores of the sea that surrounds the world.

No divinity, even under different names, enjoyed so wide a worship as his. The Incas, who had at first been exclusively sun-worshippers, became wholly

devoted to the worship of Huiracocha, and he was the only god among the divinities of the peoples they subdued that they worshipped. They admitted him to honour, not only in their sun-worship, but made him an integral part of their mythological system. But his true origin is in the southern district in which Tiahuanaco held the most important position.

In the immediate neighbourhood of the lake of Titicaca a number of other sacred towns are situated. It is necessary to explain the closeness of their connection with the civilisation of Tiahuanaco, because in later times they were converted to the Inca sun-worship. This is especially true of the islands of the lake of Titicaca. Legends of the Inca period pretend that the sun-worship had its origin in these islands, but that the sacred towns were none the less neglected until the Inca Tupak Yupanki began to make pilgrimages to them and restored them to their proper position. The fact from which this theory proceeds is that Tupak Yupanki was one of the first Incas to visit the shrine of Huiracocha on the lake of Titicaca and

Legends of the God Huiracocha

recognise his divinity. The southern shore of the lake, with its islands, was up to that time obstinately defended against the Inca-Peruvians by the Collas, one of the races peculiarly hostile to them; so there can be no question here of an earlier possession and a later neglect of the shrine by the Incas. In later times they erected numerous monumental buildings there; but on the most sacred site, near the rock behind which the sun stood still until the creator, Huiracocha, set it in motion again, appear remains of a character antecedent to Incan architecture. The sanctuary, moreover, is not a temple, but, like Ak-Kapana, an open enclosure surrounded only by a palisade.

Another site in connection with the worship of Huiracocha was Cacha, situated in the valley of Huilcanota half-way between Cuzco and the lake of Titicaca. From their architectural peculiarities the ruins in the temples in that place do not go back beyond the Inca period. Here there was a temple of Huiracocha, erected, according to the legend, in memory of the fact that the god had sent flame down from heaven and set the mountains on fire, to punish the resistance which the Canao-Indians offered to his teaching until they recognised his divinity.



RISE OF THE GREAT INCA KINGDOM

THE BEGINNINGS OF AN ERA OF CONQUEST

UPON the ruins of these civilisations, and subject to the influences of each of them in a greater or lesser degree, rose the kingdom of the Incas. The history of this empire at its greatest extends over an extremely small period, scarcely two centuries of the time during which the various peoples that composed that empire were working out the particular civilisations they reached.

But as, at the moment of the conquest, the Incas happened to be the leading power in South America, later generations have concentrated their attention entirely upon their history and upon that of peoples related to them. The Incas were not the exponents of a particular nationality or of a specially high civilisation, but they imposed their laws and customs upon a large area of country, and upon the basis of the ancient civilisations they made individual and extraordinary advances. In their kingdom,

Insignificant Origin of the Incas

which was finally composed of a large number of peoples speaking different languages, they introduced the Quechua (pronounced Kétschua) language as the official dialect. However, this was not their mother tongue. The Incas were, on the contrary, a clan of the Aymara race, the ancient civilisation of which we have observed in Tiahuanaco.

Upon the collapse of this kingdom they may have turned northward and settled in the valley of Huilcamayo, whence they entered upon their career of conquest "towards the four quarters of the heavens." As they could not reveal to the eyes of men the insignificance of their origin, they created a legend upon the subject in which a common origin was pretended both for their temporal power and their religious convictions, raising them far above ordinary mortals to the level of the gods. Long before the arrival of the Incas—thus the legend runs—the peoples of the

Peruvian highlands were living in complete savagery. They did not understand agriculture; they had no settled dwelling-places; and their only clothes were the skins of the beasts upon the raw flesh of which they fed. At last the sun-god, Inti, had pity on them; and so he put two of his children upon the islands of Lake Titi-

Legend of Sun-God's Children

caca, which his sister and wife, Quilla, the moon-goddess, had borne to him, namely, the Manco Capak, with the latter's sister and wife, Mama Ocllo. He gave them a golden staff and ordered them to follow the valley northward until the golden staff disappeared in the earth at the point where it should touch it. There they were to settle, to convert the inhabitants to sun-worship, and to acquaint them with the blessings of civilisation; and he promised them his protection and support until their bountiful influence should be extended over all the peoples of the earth. Brother and sister, with this commission, started upon their wanderings down the valley of Huilcamayo.

A few miles from Cuzco, near the mountain of Guanacaure, the golden staff suddenly disappeared. Here Manco Capak proceeded to build a house for himself and his sister wife. He then began to till the ground, which he planted with potatoes, quinoa, and other plants; and Mama Ocllo worked within the house, cooking, spinning, weaving, and practising all the

Manco's Mission to the Natives

arts which her divine parents had taught her. When they had thus looked after their own comfort Manco began to fulfil his divine mission to the natives. The inhabitants of Cuzco were astounded at the sight of himself and his sister, who were clothed in bright garments and decorated with shining ornaments; they listened suspiciously to the message of the sun-god. When, under his guidance, they began to share in the blessings of

civilisation, when the men had learned to till the ground and to build houses, and the women to spin and to weave—then they recognised what benefits they owed to the mission of Manco Capak. They readily chose him to be their ruler, and the sun-god to be their god, and the little town which formed around the hut

of this first child of the sun grew and increased visibly under the protection of his heavenly father. This legend may be called the later official form of the legend of Indian origin. As to its connection with the lake of Titicaca we may conclude that this did not take place until the sun-worship of the Incas had become reconciled to the Huiracocha worship of the highlanders, who had their sacred temple upon the lake of Titicaca. As this religious compromise took place only under the Inca Huiracocha, the eighth in the Inca dynasty, this version of the legend was not more than a hundred years old when the Spaniards reached Peru.

The older form of the legend gives a different account of the circumstances preceding Manco's settlement. One day, from the heights of Paccaritambo, nine Spanish miles south of Cuzco, there appeared four sets of twins who were also called children of the sun; among these were Ayar Manco and Mama Ocllo. Now, the biggest and strongest of these was Ayar Cachi, the husband of Mama Huaco; and his sister, being afraid of him, determined to get rid of him. They were certainly clothed in festal robes and richly adorned when they made their appearance; but they had left treasures far greater and more splendid behind them in the mountain cave.

She now asked Ayar Cachi to fetch these out; but as soon as he had disappeared in the cave she rolled great blocks of stone to the mouth and shut him in. His rage was terrible when he discovered the traitorous deception: he

shattered in pieces the mountain which rose above the cave, and the earth trembled far and wide with the shock; but he could find no way out, and finally became changed to a mountain stone. The other twins now moved farther north and ultimately settled at the mountain Guanacaure, until they finally determined to move nearer to Cuzco. When they left Guanacaure, another brother, Ayar Utschu, voluntarily

changed himself into stone, and the others promised to pray to him in the future. However, he put on mighty stone wings and flew up to their common father, the sun; whence he returned with the message that Ayar Manco was to take over the leadership of the twins, as Manco Capak, after which they moved down to Cuzco and there began their civilising mission; but Ayar Utschu remained on Guanacaure as a block of stone, in order to act as future intermediary between them and their father, the sun.

In this version of the legend two points are of importance. Upon the mountain Guanacaure there was, even at the time of the Spanish arrival, one of the most sacred temples of the whole kingdom of Tahuantinsuyu, the foundation of which was naturally connected with the legends of the race. In later times this temple, like all the official sanctuaries of the Incas, was dedicated to the sun; but the legends of its foundation undoubtedly point to the fact that in this case, as in the case of the cave of Paccaritambo, we have to do with a sanctuary belonging to the epoch

of stone-worship. This striking preponderant not only among the Collas on the south and west of the lake of Titicaca, but also in the district of Cuzco and still farther north, until the Incas spread the sun-worship. On this theory are to be explained the peculiar steps and platforms hewn out of the rock of Monte Rodadero, in the immediate neighbourhood of Cuzco, and other memorials of a like nature undoubtedly connected with stone-worship; such, for instance, as those at Concacha in the upper valley of the Apurimac; the stone chair of Huilcas Huaman in the Pampas valley; and a supposed throne of the Inca in Cajamarca in the far north.

All these sites, which were continual objects of veneration at the Inca period, make it probable that the Incas did not persecute stone-worship as assiduously as they did that of some other divinities; and when we remember the tradition of the transformation of the two children of the sun into stone, and the manner in which their worship was brought into connection with the sun-worship, the inference becomes irresistible that the earliest Incas made a religious and political compromise with the stone-worship which was flourishing around them. For political reasons

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a compromise was made, a century later, with regard to the cult of Huiracocha. While the opposition between stone-worship and sun-worship died away, it is possible that the former has always been deeply ingrained in the Peruvian natives from Inca times to the present day. And now every native porter who travels over one of the numerous passes from valley to valley in the country adds a new stone to the heap of those which his predecessors have piled up as an offering to the Apacheta, "who gives him strength to bear his burden."

The information that the legend gives us concerning the settling of the Incas in Cuzco is equally important. Before their arrival the locality must have been thickly populated, and the people must have long passed out of the state of barbarism which the official traditions ascribe to all the Peruvians before the Inca period, and have attained a settled mode of life; for the town of Cuzco was the residence of the ruler, by name Alcaviza, who also ruled over the district in the immediate neighbourhood of the

The Incas Settle in Cuzco

town. It was from him that Manco Capak and his little company asked permission to settle in the vicinity. When this had been accorded to them, they soon made their proximity unpleasant. Directly they had obtained a firm footing in one of the quarters of Cuzco they set up an opposition to the ruler and to the priests of the worship that had hitherto been carried on in the ancient Cuzco, and began to make proselytes to their own worship, which was exclusively that of the sun. This separation of parties soon degenerated into open war, the result of which was that Alcaviza and his dependents were driven out. Thus, the Inca-Peruvians got possession of the town which was to become the centre of their extensive kingdom in the course of centuries.

Peruvian tradition does not enable us to determine even approximately the date at which the first rulers of the Inca race got possession of the power. The "quipus," those bundles of different-coloured threads which the learned Peruvians used as a *memoria technica*, seem to have been of no help for chronological purposes; and all their permutations could in no way compensate for an ignorance of the art of writing. Oral tradition upon

historical events certainly formed an important part of the education imparted to the young Inca nobles and the chosen nobility of the allied and subject races in the schools of the Amauta, the learned class. But all that remained of such knowledge in the Spanish period does not help us to a chronological record of the origin of the

Inca kingdom. The number of rulers who held the throne of Cuzco from Manco Capak until Atahualpa is not even agreed upon. The estimates of the chroniclers variously give ten or thirteen rulers as predecessors of the brothers Huascar and Atahualpa; there were at least eleven of them.

It is a remarkable fact that this uncertainty does not attach to the earliest period; the succession of the first five Inca kings has been made out with tolerable certainty. Discord then appears to have sprung up in the royal family and to have disturbed the legal order of succession. Efforts to hide this fact have produced two different accounts concerning the Inca rulers in the intermediate period, which contradict each other in many details and make it extremely difficult to discover the real state of affairs. Moreover, the later Incas were much better known by their first names than by their proper names, which changed very little; but these lists of names are differently connected in the case of the three or four predecessors of Huaina Capak, so that the reign of this latter king is the first of the events which can be regarded as possessing chronological and historical certainty.

If an average reign of thirty years be ascribed to the eleven Inca kings—the legal succession was from father to son—their establishment in Cuzco would have taken place about the year 1200 of the Christian era. Upon its collapse the Inca kingdom would then have existed about 330 years—an estimate of time which is perhaps too long rather than too

Duration of the Inca Kingdom

short, if we consider the instability of the institutions of ancient America. Although Manco Capak is not really a proper name, yet the bearer of it must be considered as an historical personality. Perhaps the Amauta purposely allowed his proper name to be forgotten, in order to conceal the historical connection of the Inca rulers with the other states of ancient America, and to strengthen the popular idea of their direct origin from the sun-god.

"Capak," in the Quechua language, the official dialect of the Inca state, means "kingdom" and "mighty," and is a royal title which other chiefs assumed before and at the time of the Incas. The same is true of the word "Manco." Its origin and proper meaning are not altogether so clear, but tradition speaks of a number of Mancos who were kings, in particular of those districts which were situated in the westerly and northerly parts of the Inca kingdom. "Manco Capak" must consequently be translated "mighty king"—a name wholly suited to impress the people and to deceive them concerning the lowly origin of the Inca rulers in Peru. Of Manco Capak's rule after his establishment in Cuzco we have only the general tradition that he instructed his people in civilisation, introduced sun-worship, and increased his boundaries rather by the arts of peace than by force of arms. The legend attributes to him the foundation of all those institutions which left their impressions upon the later Inca kingdom, although a large number of the laws ascribed to him would have been useless and incapable of execution in the limited extent of the original realm. The Inca kingdom, which roused the astonishment of the sixteenth-century conquerors, and to-day justly claims the greatest interest, was essentially the work of the four great rulers, Huiracocha, Yupanki (also called Pachacutec), Tupak Yupanki, and Huaina Capak. These certainly built upon the foundations which their predecessors had laid, but they also entirely altered the general character of the kingdom. Consequently, it is extremely difficult to gain a trustworthy idea of the condition of the Inca kingdom before the time of these monarchs.

The traditions give us as little definite information concerning the first three successors of Manco Capak as they do about himself. All our sources agree in naming them Sinchi Roca, Lloque Yupanki, and

Maita Capak, and they are said to stand to one another in the relationship of father and son. But traditions are wholly at variance concerning the names and relationships of their wives and mothers.

We have the official tradition that the marriage of Manco Capak with his sister, Mama Ocllo, was in fulfilment of a command of the sun-god, following the precedent of the marriage of the sun with his sister-planet, the moon; but this is most obviously derived from the ancient decree of the Inca kingdom, also well known in the later period, according to which that Inca son alone could legitimately ascend the throne whom the father has begotten of his own sister, or, failing a sister, of the next nearest relation of pure Inca blood.

On the contrary, another and apparently reliable tradition informs us that not only the immediate successors of Manco Capak, but also the majority of the Incas down to Yupanki Pachacutec, sprang from marriages which took place between the rulers of Cuzco with the daughters of neighbouring powers. The rulers until Maita Capak are consistently said to have extended the boundaries of their realm by peaceful methods.

The official tradition also relates of one or two of the earlier Incas that they did not choose their "coya" from the Inca family, but raised daughters of the neighbouring kings to the throne of the Inca kingdom. We cannot understand how Huaina Capak would have dared, after his conquest of Quito, to have included the princess who was heiress to the throne among the number of his own wives, if a religious decree had been in force from the foundation of the dynasty that marriage should be with the sister or with a mate of the closest relationship.

Moreover, such a policy on the part of the Incas is easily intelligible. They had entered the valley of Huillcanota as a little band of foreign invaders, and their forcible expulsion of the Cuzco ruler was



Mansell

A STONE SEAT OF ANCIENT PERU



THE INCAS IN PERU: REMAINS OF A BYGONE CIVILISATION

In Peru, the ancient home of the Incas, are to be found many remains of that race, these testifying to the advanced standard of civilisation in America before the conquering Spaniards landed on its shores. The above pictures illustrate, 1, ruins near Lima; 2, a burial tomb; 3, ruins of the temple of Virococha; and 4, an ancient seat of justice.

Photos: N. P. Edwards, E. N. A., and others

hardly likely to win over the sympathies of the neighbouring races, many of whom had apparently entered upon connections of friendship and marriage with Alcaviza. Furthermore, they remained foreigners by their continual opposition to the universal religion of the highlands, stone-worship, and the worship of Huiracocha; and in

The First Century of Inca Rule

the place of this they had introduced a worship which attracted less sympathy among the people as being less intelligible to them. For the first century of their rule the Incas were nothing else than little territorial princes among a crowd of others. They were totally incapable of imposing their political and religious customs upon their neighbours, and were probably thankful themselves to be left unmolested.

In such circumstances that policy recommended itself which was likely to ensure their position by means of alliance; by setting up family relationships they attempted to destroy the recollection of their foreign and late invasion of the territory of the highland kings. We may believe the ancient traditions from the fact that they succeeded by these means in imposing their higher civilisation upon peoples who were less cultivated though not entirely savage, while the obvious advantages they attained by their careful tilling of the soil and their division of labour won over adherents to them who abandoned the neighbouring provinces and settled under the Inca protection.

In thankfulness for the material improvement in their position, these last accepted a religion which they scarcely understood, and perhaps regarded the progress and prosperity of the Inca district as evidence of the higher powers of their god. But the extensions of the Cuzco kingdom under the first four Inca kings were very limited. At that time the Chancas were independent of the Inca kingdom; they possessed a district upon

The Incas Without Real Power

the immediate west of the valley of Cuzco between Andahuailas and Ayacucho, which at that period was far more powerful than the Inca state. Independent also were the Quechua, whose language in later times became the official Inca idiom; they lived on the north of the Incas in the times of Maita Capak. The Cana and Canche also, who dwelt between Cuzco and the lake of Titicaca, were then wholly independent. Even in the immediate

neighbourhood of their capital the Incas at that time possessed no real power. They were connected with all the little dynasties lying over a radius of from twelve to twenty miles around Cuzco, who considered themselves of royal power, only by means of a compact concluded on a basis of equality of justice, which compact Huiracocha, the eighth ruler on the Inca throne, changed into a real dominion.

Finally, Maita Capak was at one time by no means securely settled in his capital; for the Alcaviza, the successors of the race who had exercised the chief power in Cuzco before the arrival of Manco Capak, looked enviously upon their more fortunate rival. Under the fourth Inca king a bloody battle took place in order finally to banish from the town the restless dependents of the ancient dynasty.

The battle in which Maita Capak overcame the rebel Alcaviza is expressly noted as the first occasion upon which an Inca extended his power by the sword. Things were very different under the successors to the throne. The three following Incas, Capak Yupanki, Inca Roca, and

Founders of the Kingdom's Greatness

Yahuar Huacac, whose collective reigns probably embraced about a century, were the founders of the greatness of the kingdom. With them begins the policy of conquest by which the Incas extended the boundaries of their power in every direction. In their immediate neighbourhood they seem to have preserved the confederation that had been set on foot, but they enlisted the youthful warriors of the allied kingdoms in their service and accustomed them to regard themselves as their leaders. By this means, and through the rich booty they took in war, they imperceptibly gained a preponderance over the other confederates which, in course of time, inevitably became a dominion.

Capak Yupanki began his rule by assuring his position at home. Maita Capak had left many sons whom he had set up in almost independent positions in the neighbouring districts. When Capak Yupanki gave them clearly to understand that he wanted their obedience, not their friendship, they made a conspiracy to depose him, and to set up a ruler in his place more in accordance with their own views. But their compact was betrayed: instead of the Inca, most of the conspirators fell by the sword; and in order to erase the impression of this tragedy,

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and to turn the energy of the youthful Incas into some useful direction, Capak Yupanki began that series of campaigns which led him speedily to the north (Condesuyu) and north-east (Andesuyu) along the course of the streams.

From that time the Incas became particularly aggressive and expansive. Hardly in the entire world has a power been seen which remained so moderate and humane in its warfare as the Incas, although generation upon generation grew up in the service of arms. Always ready to appeal to the sword, and gifted with heroic bravery, the Incas none the less invariably attempted peaceful methods before proceeding to attack. Their campaigns were not rapid surprises, like those of the wild and half-civilised peoples in the west of America, when the greatest possible number of the opponents were killed in order that they, laden with the enemy's spoil, might get home again as quickly as possible. Their warfare was systematic. The Incas never took an enemy by surprise; their armies invariably sent out ambassadors inviting a willing submission to their mild rule.

The Incas in Peace and War

They said that the Inca, the child of the sun-god, had come to them, not to do them harm, but to free them from all that was ancient and bad, and thereby to make them acquainted with the blessings of a more civilised mode of life and a higher religion.

The more the Inca kingdom increased in power and extent, the wider spread the certainty, even among remote nations, that this message was no empty pretence, but that in reality the position of subjects in the Inca realm was far superior to the lot of those who opposed their rule in any district. Hardly ever did the Incas depose a ruler who voluntarily subjected himself to their government. Incorporation in the Inca kingdom certainly altered the position of the monarch, who became a vassal of the sun's child in Cuzco instead of an independent ruler. The relations of the king to his previous subjects were also largely remodelled upon the organisation of the leading power, but the Incas never appeared as fanatical doctrinaires.

They invariably respected national peculiarities as far as these were consistent with their political necessities; but in course of time the influence of the ruling power threw such peculiarities into the background, and tended to obliterate them entirely.

Upon religious questions the earliest Incas did not practise this conciliatory policy. The first races which they subdued were obliged to receive a common form of worship without exception. Maita Capak is said to have once ordered the subjects of the neighbouring regions to bring all their stone images to Cuzco, alleging as his motive the preparation of brilliant festivities to their common gods; but when all these stone gods had been collected he had them broken in pieces and built into the walls of the temple of the sun, in order to show the people the powerlessness of the gods which they worshipped. But even on this side their policy became far more diplomatic in the course of time, chiefly under the influence of political necessities.

The Inca campaigns often ended without the shedding of a drop of blood, in spite of the great display of power they involved. They were, however, always ready to break down the most obstinate resistance. The difficulties of communication in that wide realm imposed a slow retreat upon the numerous Inca armies. Especially in later times, when the kingdom had become of considerable extent, it was not unusual for a campaign to last two or three years or even more. The army was furnished not only for the necessities of war, but also for its own maintenance.

As in the case of those armed garrisons which were established by the Incas in districts where obedience could only be enforced by arms, so the army, when marching out to attack, could till the soil with weapons at their sides if the campaign threatened to last long. But it was only in exceptional cases that an army was obliged to have recourse to these means. Not only the organisation of the troops for attack, but also the commissariat, the transport of reinforcements, and the withdrawal of troops, were mar-

vellously well arranged. The trades which were everywhere carried on in the Inca kingdom enabled the rulers in times of

peace to make important provision of food, clothing, and other necessary articles. These were collected in great magazines in every province, and in times of war, famine, or pestilence, these stores were opened. Such an organisation, together with that prestige which the Incas so rapidly acquired, enables us to understand

that it was often unnecessary to appeal to arms in struggles with the less civilised races in the mountain valleys and on the inhospitable coast. The feeling of absolute helplessness among their powerless enemies was the best ally to the Incas.

Even in cases where their invitation to voluntary subjection was rejected, the Incas did not give up their policy of conciliation. An attack immediately followed from their side, and the superiority of their organisation and equipment almost invariably gave them the victory. But then the Inca ambassadors immediately renewed their peace proposals, and even then the native rulers were generally left in their positions, provided they had not

conquest the soil of Peru showed unmistakable traces of the fact that the Incas were ready to wage unsparing war when necessary. In those cases they had no hesitation, with an army of extraordinary strength, in destroying fortresses like that of Mojeque, the gigantic blocks of which form a mighty field of ruins even to-day, or temples such as that of Chavin de Huantar, in spite of, or even on account of, the extensive reverence paid them; and here their object was not only to leave the enemy no opportunity for future rebellion, but also to make an impression upon him by their ruthless destruction of that which had cost so much trouble to build. And where a people persisted in



RUINS AT OLLANTAYTAMBO, SHOWING PRESENT-DAY QUECHUA, OR INCA INDIANS

continued their resistance to the last. Hardly any kingdom with which the Incas came in contact during their career of conquest was sufficiently closely organised to make the war one of extermination. Individual rulers who considered themselves equal to the Incas certainly thought it shameful to buy a continuation of their power by recognising the Inca superiority, and they at least felt the full weight of their anger. Yet even in those cases the Incas generally found certain vassals, loosely dependent upon their opponents, who were ready to listen to their enticing propositions and to give them their aid in bringing the war to a successful conclusion. But at the time of the Spanish

revolting against the mild Inca rule they had a still more efficacious method at hand. They not only built numerous fortresses and kept them ready prepared in such conquered districts, but they also broke down the resistance of the peoples they had subdued by taking the most youthful warriors who would have been the most likely to revolt, and settling them in distant provinces among races of tried fidelity.

This picture of the warlike policy of the Incas was not realised to the fullest extent during the rule of Capak Yupanki. His armies were not so large, and his campaigns were not so distant, as to demand a highly organised military system. His successor, the Inca Roca, contributed



INCA SEATS CUT OUT OF THE SOLID ROCK AT OLLANTAYTAMBO



AN OLD BURIAL PLACE OF THE INCAS NEAR CUZCO

SCENES IN CUZCO, THE MOST ANCIENT OF THE PERUVIAN CITIES

perhaps, no less to the later greatness of the kingdom of Cuzco than Capak Yupanki; but his efforts took another direction. We are certainly told of him and of Yahuar Huacac that they undertook occasional campaigns beyond the boundaries of their dominion, but they both seem to have been men of peace at heart. On the other hand, the beginnings of the extensions and improvements in the capital of Cuzco are ascribed to the Inca Roca. The work carried on under his government makes it quite certain that even in his time the Incas were in a position to employ their subjects in the execution of immense designs. To him and to his coya, or queen, is ascribed the installation of the most ancient water-service, which brought to the town of Cuzco fresh spring water at a time when it was growing more civilised in its necessities and of greater importance.

An Age of Advanced Civilisation

This water-service, however, is not to be confounded with the sluice-gates and irrigation works which were necessary for the soil of the Inca kingdom in most districts to make that high cultivation of the land possible under its climatic conditions which the dense population of the empire demanded. With regard to this irrigation, the Incas continued their long-sighted, careful policy by the erection of works which aroused the greatest astonishment. They are, however, by no means the first to have discovered the art of irrigation; this was practised to a considerable extent by almost all their subject peoples before they became members of the Inca kingdom. We see, then, that the legend is in no way worthy of credence which depicts Manco Capak as the discoverer and expounder of that mode of cultivation which became peculiar to the Inca realm.

The work which forms the chief memorial, and is in fact an imperishable monument of Inca Roca, is the palace which he began to erect in his capital. Architecture, before the Inca period, had attained considerable perfection uninfluenced by Inca models; and the Incas certainly do not merit any praise for having further developed an art which they found already at the highest stage of its earlier progress. In comparison with the technical perfection which the immense ruins of Tiahuanaco display, the art of the Inca architects of Cuzco was certainly something of a retrogression. Tia-

The Great Palace of Inca Roca

huanaco is the work of architects who employed enormous blocks of stone, similar to those of the cyclopean buildings which are found in all parts of the world, and who were even at that remote period able to prepare every single detail with accurate measurements and plans.

On the other hand, the walls of the palace of the Inca Roca are cyclopean buildings in the ordinary sense of the term; the blocks are of the largest size which could be handled with the limited appliances of the time, and are often most wonderfully shaped to suit the necessities of the site on which they were erected; a particularly remarkable stone displays, for instance, no less than twelve corners.

Moreover, the fitting of these blocks thus carefully shaped, the outer surface of which was generally smoothed, is so exact, in spite of their irregular forms, that even to-day the blade of a knife can scarcely be driven into their joints, although no mortar or other cohesive material was employed. A later Inca once pulled down a portion of the town of Cuzco in order to rebuild it upon a uniform plan. But large numbers of buildings were exempted from this destruction, as is shown by the number of constructions built with irregular polygon blocks, which can be clearly distinguished from the architecture of the later Inca, standing at the present day.

The most important monument in this style is the palace of Inca Roca, which was situated in a street of Cuzco now known as the Calle del Triunfo; its walls, artistically composed of many cornered blocks, were used by the modern builders of later times as a welcome foundation.

The architectural perfection of the Inca-Peruvians advanced considerably in later times. Their preference for large blocks of stone invariably persisted, and this to such an extent that even where Nature did not provide the ordinary material of hard rock and obliged them to build with smaller stones, as their subject nations had done, their buildings can still be distinguished from those of earlier times by the fact of their displaying individual stones of unusually large dimensions. But at the chief period of the Inca power, temples and palaces were built with cubes of stone worked with extraordinary care, and laid with such exactitude that the courses upon the front of the building present, upon a close examination, the appearance of

Inca Triumphs in Architecture

THE RISE OF THE GREAT INCA KINGDOM

level bands. From a point of view at a moderate distance, the whole wall of the building appears as though it were made of one stone. In spite of this marvellous technical perfection, the Inca buildings were never very beautiful; in their long, massive, heavy walls, proportion is almost entirely wanting; and as the Incas were never capable of constructing a vaulted roof in the primitive mode of the Central Americans, the length of their buildings in comparison with their moderate height produces a disagreeable impression.

Furthermore, in the kingdom of Tahuantinsuyu, sculpture was almost entirely forbidden. Very rarely in Inca buildings are to be seen any decorative carvings whatever; the few gates above which a decoration of pumas' heads appears are probably only remains of buildings antecedent to the Incas, which they had pulled down, and the material of which their architects had used for their own purposes. The Inca worship forbade any kind of sculptural decoration, and in ancient times waged a bitter war of extermination against the idols of the subject races; it thus

Decorations Forbidden by Inca Worship

became a rule that living beings should, under no circumstances, be depicted in stone. Their buildings display extraordinary skill in working even the hardest rock, and their pottery-ware shows equally clearly that they found no difficulty in depicting real life with proportion and vigour; but every sculpture that has been found on Peruvian soil is antecedent to the time of the Inca kingdom. The artistic tendencies of the Incas have made it easy to distinguish their work from that of their predecessors and successors. Generally an examination of the stone-work is sufficient to settle any question as to the origin of an Inca building; for neither before nor after them were blocks fitted together with that exactness which proclaims most careful polishing.

Another characteristic feature in the Inca architecture is that all openings were in trapezoidal form. Windows in their buildings are rather the exception than the rule, a circumstance which increases the gloomy appearance of their houses. However, upon the inside walls of their buildings are constantly to be found niches which served them as cupboards, and these, as well as the doors, which looked into an open court in a long row, and admitted light and air to the rooms

grouped around it, display the peculiarity that the posts lean in towards one another, so that the lintel is rather narrower than the threshold. The Inca architects clung to this peculiarity, whatever the diversity of material and situation; from the lake of Titicaca up to Quito, and from Cuzco to the shore of the Pacific Ocean, this

The First Inca Schools

distinctive feature can be recognised without difficulty. Their mode of roofing must have made the Inca buildings appear doubly strange and ugly. For that purpose they could not use stone, and trees were too scarce to provide sufficient material for solid constructions of wood.

Consequently, the roofs of even their most ornamental buildings were composed of canes and straw, which were supported by wooden posts of moderate strength. The exterior of the buildings was decorated by plates and artistically worked pieces of precious metal, but this would be true only of the temples, and to a limited degree of the palaces; for gold and silver were worthless to the common people, and served mainly as gifts to the gods, and to the kings, who were considered almost equal to them.

The foundation of the first schools in the kingdom was also ascribed to the Inca Roca. The Peruvians had their own learned class, the Amauta; but these formed only a subordinate division of the Inca caste. Far from desiring to spread education throughout the ranks of the people, the Incas were of the opinion that too much knowledge and power could produce only dissatisfaction, and were consequently unsuitable for the common people.

Hence it was that only scholars of the Inca blood could be received into the classes of the Amauta; and besides the youths of the Inca race, their schools in Cuzco were attended only by such children of the vassal princes as the special favour of the Incas allowed to come—a favour which also served political purposes, as

it made the young princes acquainted with those particular conceptions upon which the Inca power was founded.

In these schools the young people obtained solid and valuable instruction; bodily exercises and intellectual training went on side by side; and the difficult problem of developing body and mind to an equal degree was thus solved sufficiently to meet the requirements of the time. Languages formed an important

department in their instruction. The Incas of the royal families are said to have spoken a language of their own; this was known to the Amauta, but upon the destruction of the Inca race, before and during the Spanish conquest, the knowledge of it was so entirely lost that at the time of the Inca Garcilaso there was no one living who knew it. This language cannot have been a wholly isolated dialect, as Garcilaso would have us believe, but was probably a dialect of the Aymara, which was spoken by Manco Capak and the race which was destroyed upon the migration of the Incas to Cuzco.

Forgotten Language of Inca Rulers

It was an act of far-seeing policy that the Incas did not make these rude, uncultivated dialects the official language of their realm, but used the Quechua, which was widely spread upon the north and west of Cuzco, and the sounds and forms of which were less harsh and more easily acquired. Under their rule this speech became native to all the subjects of their empire, so that it is even now spoken throughout the area of the former kingdom of Tahuantinsuyu, while only a few remains have survived of the national languages of the subject races, and some dialects have become altogether extinct.

The higher learning was naturally exclusively reserved to the Amauta; it was pursued only in particular schools. Thus, none but the Amauta understood the system of quipus, the different-coloured strings arranged in a row upon a cross-string, which served as the only existing help to the memory. This system may have been very well suited for that fixed condition of things which was the ideal of the Inca government, but it could not compensate for the lack of a proper handwriting as a real means of exchanging thoughts or of stereotyping expression. In the high schools of the Amauta the preservation of historical traditions was earnestly

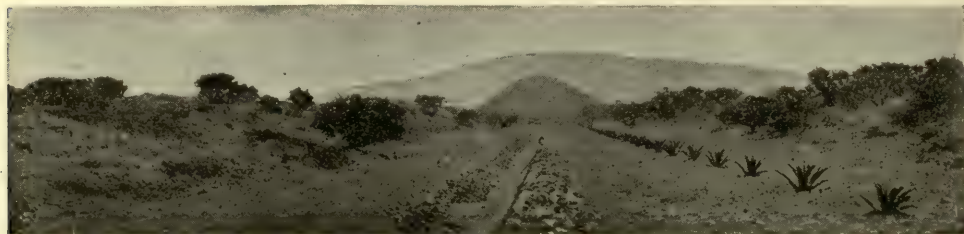
pursued. Epic and lyric poems are said to have been preserved by the Amauta during the Inca period; but these were undoubtedly transmitted entirely by word of mouth—no use being made of the quipus, many examples of which are in existence, but none of which have been explained or translated. It has been established that the Ollanta drama, which was supposed to be a product of ancient Indian intellect, came into existence in the seventeenth century, and is therefore owing to Spanish influence.

Finally, the Amauta became the repositories of priestly knowledge, with which, as is usual to, and characteristic of, a kingdom of sun-worshippers, astronomical knowledge was closely connected. The Inca calendar seems to have been in a much earlier stage of development than that of many other American peoples; the Incas were probably too

Peruvians' Chief Festival

proud to borrow the discoveries of other nations, while their own civilisation was of too short a growth to have arrived at the discovery of an accurate calendar. Their chief festival, upon which their chronology was founded, the "Inti Raimi," was celebrated upon a date settled by observation of the sun; this was the day on which the shadow of the gnomon, known as "Inti huanana," showed that the northerly procession of the sun had ceased—that is, that the winter solstice had begun, the day being about June 21st; consequently a difference between the actual year and the state year was impossible.

The Peruvians do not seem to have gained these results by calculation; almost all their festivals were regulated by the position of the sun and the phases of the moon; they also knew and revered the Pleiades and the morning and evening star, under the name of "Chasca." Pachacutec, the Inca, was the first to divide the year into twelve months.



THE PATHWAY OF THE DEAD AND THE PYRAMID OF THE MOON IN MEXICO

AMERICA
BEFORE
COLUMBUS



NATIVE
CIVILISATIONS
OF SOUTH
AMERICA
V

GROWING POWER OF THE INCAS AND THE REVIVAL OF NATIONAL RELIGIONS

THE institutions ascribed to the Inca Roca show that the Inca kingdom under his government had arrived at a high pitch of intellectual and material prosperity ; but, as will be seen from the following occurrences, its organisation was still extremely loose and in no way corresponded with the political ideals which our sources show us to have prevailed at the time of the conquest. It was the immediate successors of Inca Roca who really founded and centralised the Inca kingdom.

The government of the Inca Yahuar Huacac Yupanki was considered as a period of misfortune by the Peruvian Amauta ; his name denotes " the man who weeps tears of blood." The history of the first six Inca rulers is related by all our sources with great consistency and but few discrepancies ; but with regard to the kings between Inca Roca and Inca Yupanki Pachacutec there is such confusion in the ancient traditions that the number, names, and exploits ascribed to individual kings cannot be brought into any sort of harmony. It can only be asserted that during this period both the Inca dynasty and the Inca kingdom underwent heavy shocks and were frequently subject to internal strife.

The dangers with which the Inca kingdom was threatened resulted from efforts to strengthen their rule over the races in their immediate neighbourhood, who had hitherto been rather their allies than their subjects. Yahuar Huacac had made a step in this direction by demanding tribute from the races of the high valleys, who had been in the habit of making voluntary presents to the Incas ; this was the signal for a revolt which brought the Inca kingdom to the verge of destruction for a second time. The Chanca, a war-like race spread upon the north-west of Cuzco between Andahuailas and Arequipa, marched against Cuzco, under the leadership of their king, Uscovilla, with

such overpowering force that Yahuar Huacac did not venture to await the enemy in his unfortified town, but fled southward.

The dangers which threatened the Inca state from without come at this point into connection with those which were originated by the internal conditions of the dynasty. The narratives make it tolerably plain that the legal line of succession was again interrupted. The official accounts, which always attempt to conceal any disturbance of the political law and order, represent matters as if the legal heir to the throne had, by his youthful haughtiness, excited the anger of his father to such an extent that he threatened to disinherit his son, and reduced him to the humble position of shepherd to the sacred flocks in the mountains. There one of his ancestors, a prince of the royal house, by name Huiracocha, is said to have appeared to him one day in a dream, and told him of the great dangers which threatened the kingdom, owing to the revolt of the Chanca.

Thereupon the prince hastened to the capital, in spite of his father's prohibition. His father did not receive his explanation, but when he had fled before the approaching enemy, the king's son is said to have inspired the timid citizens of the capital with fresh enthusiasm, and finally to have repulsed the attacks upon Cuzco. Moreover, with the help of the divine warriors whom Huiracocha sent to his assistance he defeated the enemy in open battle, and subjected them for ever to the Inca rule.

The legend of a Brave Prince then continues to relate how the victorious prince declined the proposals of his thankful comrades to accept the crown, and proceeded to conciliate his royal father by submission until the latter voluntarily abdicated and duly announced himself as the first of his son's vassals. However, the real course of events was probably as follows. The courage of the

Strife in
the Inca
Kingdom

Inca State
in the Midst
of Dangers

Legend
of a Brave
Prince

reigning king, and of the Incas around him, failed before the threatening advance of the Chanca. The state was so dislocated that he could not rely upon the greater portion of his subjects; and as the town of Cuzco and its environs offered no secure refuge, the Inca and his closest dependents determined to conceal themselves and their treasures in the mountains.

The supporters of the pre-Incan dynasty among the citizens who were now thus abandoned—that is, the worshippers of the old god Huiracocha—rose to power upon the cowardly flight of their ruler; even without the Chanca they would certainly have put an end to the rule of the foreigners if the long and prosperous government of the later dynasty had not formed among the people a strong party which was favourable to the Incas. Under these circumstances a youth of the Inca race appeared among the waverers; he had no legal right of succession to the throne, but was a man of Inca blood and Inca courage. The immediate necessity was to do away with the opposition between the remnant of the ancient inhabitants and the Inca dependents, which had broken out with greater vigour upon the flight of the ruler. For this purpose he invented the legend of the appearance of the god Huiracocha.

He said that the god of the ancient people had chosen him, the Inca, as the saviour of his people. By this means he obtained allies among the neighbouring

highland races, who helped him to victory. This favourite of Huiracocha was naturally disinclined to lay the palm of victory at the feet of those Incas in whose absence he had won his success; but he was equally unable openly to usurp the power of the Inca king in the face of a strong party of allies who had materially contributed to his success. The consequence was that for many years the lawful ruler, who was greatly despised by his people for his cowardice, set up his court far from Cuzco, while his more fortunate rival held the reins of power in the capital without venturing to assume the royal title.

A new King on the Inca Throne

Finally, a compromise was brought about which enabled the aged king to spend his remaining years in peace and gave the real ruler the legal title he had won. The Inca who took the name of the god Huiracocha had to thank his southern neighbours, the Canes and Cancha, for the salvation of Cuzco and for his victory over the Chanca.

But there was collected beneath his standard, not a body of vassals, but a confederation which expected a rich recompense from the spoils of war. Here we have another proof of the fact that the Inca kingdom, both in extent and in internal compactness, was still far removed from its later perfection. But important strides were made under the rule of the far-seeing Huiracocha. In the first place, the subjugation of the



RUINED TEMPLE OF HUIRACOCHA, BETWEEN CUZCO AND THE LAKE OF TITICACA
The Temple of Huiracocha marks the beginning of that scepticism among the Incas and Amantas concerning their gods, to counteract which the more faithful of Huiracocha's worshippers caused a number of temples to be erected, this being the most important of them. Most of these temples also served as tombs, but only for the kings and high priests.



Underwood

A WAYSIDE SHRINE BELOW THE WALLS OF AN ANCIENT INCA FORTRESS

In the above picture the distant past is united with modern times, as it illustrates a wayside Calvary erected by some devout Roman Catholics near the ancient walls of an Inca fortress. The few descendants of the Incas to-day preserve, to some extent, their old religious forms, but many have been won over to Catholicism by the missions of the Church.

Chanca provided him with a numerous body of warriors immediately dependent upon him, whom he raised to honour and position. On the other hand, there were many little dynasties in the neighbourhood of Cuzco loosely dependent upon the Inca state who were disinclined to give in their allegiance to the new ruler, and had regarded his predecessors upon the throne with displeasure. Huiracocha, with extraordinary cleverness, now changed the feeble suzerainty of the ruler of Cuzco

into a virtual dominion. The dependents of the previous Inca did not find courage for an open display of hostility, and as the individual dynasties were unable to unite for common purposes they were reduced to the position of vassal states. The Canes and Cancha, when they refused to recognise the sovereignty of the Inca by sending him tribute, were attacked and subdued after a vigorous resistance.

They later became the most faithful, loyal and reliable subjects of the Inca; to them was reserved the honourable duty of providing bearers for the king's litter; for the Inca, like the princes of the Chibchas and Quitus, was invariably carried on

a litter when he went on a journey. During a long rule the Inca Huiracocha carried his arms successfully against enemies in the most various directions; but his success was due as much to his political skill as to the bravery of his armies.

We have a particular proof of this in his interference in the quarrels of the Colla. On the western and southern shores of the lake of Titicaca, two rulers, Cari of Chucuito, and Zapana of Hatun-Colla, were struggling for pre-eminence, and each was short-sighted enough to invite Huiracocha's help. That gave him the opportunity of being the first of the Inca race to press forward to the sacred islands of Titicaca and the ruined cities of Tiahuanaco. He took the side of the weaker and more remote Cari, who readily became a kind of vassal to the Inca, in order to repel his more powerful opponent; and thereby he prepared the incorporation of both districts in the Inca state, an incorporation which a rising in that district enabled his grandson, Tupak Yupanki, to complete.

A fundamental reason for the rapid and brilliant success of the new Inca lay in the alteration of his religious policy. The sun-worship which the Incas had set up

as the religion for the state and the people could hardly appeal to the inhabitants of the highlands. It was a mixture of reverence for the powers of Nature and of ancestor-worship, which latter feature made it an important element in the Inca family life, strong emphasis being thereby laid upon the difference between the Inca race and

the peoples subject to them, and so this cult became rather an opportunity for expressing disgust than an occasion for worship. The sun, with his beneficent influences of warmth and fruitfulness, was certainly an eminently suitable deity for the inhabitants of the bare, rough highlands, and Huiracocha, as he was originally worshipped by the Quechua and other neighbouring peoples, was no doubt an offshoot from a sun divinity. Although the Incas must have conceived of the sun-god, Inti, as their forefather in a human form, they none the less banished from their worship every kind of anthropomorphism. When worship was not directly offered to the luminary, as it invariably was on great feast-days, the god was represented only by a bright golden shield.

Pictorial representation was systematically objected to by the Incas, not only in their own worship, but also in that of all other gods. In their campaigns against hostile peoples the destruction of temples and images was considered an important duty. The peoples who reluctantly bowed to the yoke of the Inca dominion were not brought into any closer sympathy with their religion when they saw the hall of the sun-god in the temple at Cuzco changed into a hall of ancestors; along the walls stood the embalmed mummies of dead rulers, a band of solar children grouped around their father, the sun-god.

There can be no question that this worship contributed to raise a barrier between the Incas and their subjects. The worship of Huiracocha now resolved upon by the new

Worshippers of the God Huiracocha Inca, who borrowed his name from that of the god, implied a complete breach with the religious policy that had hitherto obtained. But this Inca, who was too cultivated to find any satisfaction for his own religious needs in sun-worship, could not afford to set up such a primitive idolatry as the ancient worship of the highland god must have been. The god whom the Amautas and Incas worshipped under the name of Huiracocha, as the

almighty creator of all things, whom they honoured more than Inti, the sun-god, as being the source of all life, was no stone image; he defied all representation, pictorial and otherwise, as he worked and lived under no concrete form, existing as the mighty power which penetrates the whole world. Upon the occurrence of one of those religious ceremonies with which the rising orb of day was greeted, and which were crowned by the presence of the king, the Inca Huiracocha is said to have asked the priests and Amautas collected around him whether it was conceivable that Inti was the highest god and the ruler of all things, as he invariably accomplished his course around the earth in a manner both regular and fatiguing. Supposing he were free and powerful, would he not at some time feel a desire to take a rest or to strike out another path than the one of which his daily routine must have made him thoroughly weary?

Similar beginnings of scepticism and eclecticism not difficult to understand, are related of his successors, and afforded an opportunity for the introduction of the

Revival of National Religions ideas which the Incas attached to their worship of Huiracocha. In Cacha they erected a famous temple of Huiracocha for the benefit of the people; its ruins show strong divergences from the architectural style of the Incas, and also from that of all the other Peruvian peoples, and remain standing to-day as an unsolved problem. In Cuzco and other places altars were erected to the god, and his image was placed before them, generally in the form of an old man in flowing robes.

Other national religions, which had been repressed hitherto, now celebrated their revival. In the version of the legend about the conquest of the Chanca, who are said to have been overcome with the help of the Pururaucas, those stone statues of warriors which started into life and rushed into the ranks of the enemy at the Inca's call, we see at least a reminiscence of the revival of stone-worship. In the case of the succeeding Inca there is even better evidence of this, in the fact that after a visit to Tiahuanaco he ordered similar memorials to be set up in the neighbourhood of Cuzco; the results of this order were the peculiar steps, platforms, and sites hewn in the rock of Monte Rodadero near Cuzco. The worships of other subject peoples were also recognised

GROWING POWER OF THE INCAS

later by the Incas, and transported to Cuzco; as, for instance, the worship of Pachacamak, the chief god of the peoples on the coast of the Pacific Ocean. At the time of the Spanish conquest Cuzco was a meeting-place, not only for princes and governors, but also for the gods and priests of every race which belonged to the Inca kingdom—a regular arsenal of idols, differing widely in shape and meaning.

It was important for the Inca Huiracocha to find a successor to the throne who could continue and bring to perfection the work which he had begun. The rule of the Inca Yupanki, who was also called Pachacutec, was an open progress of almost uninterrupted triumph. On the east he extended the boundaries of his kingdom to the point where the mountain streams moderate their impetuous course in the boundless llanos. On the south he won several victories over the king of Hatun-Colla, and added the king of Chucuito to the number of his vassals. Upon the north he extended his dominion as far as Cajamarca and Conchucos; and as his father had left him no more

Inca Rule Extended to the Sea

room for conquest upon the west of the mountain valleys, he advanced to the shores of the Pacific Ocean and subdued the whole seaboard as far as the Rimak valley. His campaigns, which he sometimes led in person and sometimes entrusted to his brothers, and later to his successor, often lasted for years; under him was completed the military organisation to which we have already referred.

The war upon the coast called for special precautions. Previous attempts to press forward in that direction had caused the Inca unusually heavy losses. His highland warriors could not endure the hot coast climate, and fevers were enemies against which they were almost powerless. But by relieving the armies fighting on the coast with fresh divisions at short intervals, and by removing the warriors to the highlands to recruit, he succeeded in extending his rule to the sea. When once this was accomplished, he found reliable soldiers in the races on the coast, and soldiers, too, who were inured to the climate.

The principle of leaving an easy retreat open to the enemy against whom he marched was also followed by him. Numerous races and princes in the mountains and on the coast submitted to his display of power without obliging him

to make them feel the sharpness of his sword. Among those which submitted voluntarily was the priestly state of Pachacamak in the valley of Lurin. The times when the Incas overthrew the temples had long since passed away. Pachacutec worshipped in person the gods who were honoured as far and wide upon the coast-land as Huiracocha was in the mountains, and left the temples and their treasures undisturbed; to these latter he even sent costly presents. The only condition he laid upon the conquered people was that upon the heights which overlooked the town and temple of Pachacamak a new and more splendid temple should be erected to his own god Inti, the sun, and he ordered a similar temple to be built in Cuzco for Pachacamak.

The Inca power had not been so firmly established in these extensive and recently subdued districts that Pachacutec did not have to deal now and again with revolts. The Chanca reluctantly bore the Inca yoke. Neither permanent fortifications in their land, nor the fact that their ranks had been repeatedly weakened by the transportation of their warriors into more peaceful parts of the kingdom, served to break or to appease their haughty spirit. On the contrary, they determined, when they were convinced of their weakness, to abandon their ancient home rather than give up their independence. The whole tribe started on a migration in a north-easterly direction, and founded a settlement in Chachapoyas, which was only again united with the kingdom under the last Inca ruler.

Pachacutec had also other battles to fight within his realm, but these did not seriously endanger it. Among the men of Inca blood there were still many remaining who knew to what change of succession the dynasty from which Pachacutec was sprung owed the throne of Cuzco. Thus

Plot and Counterplot in the Inca Palace

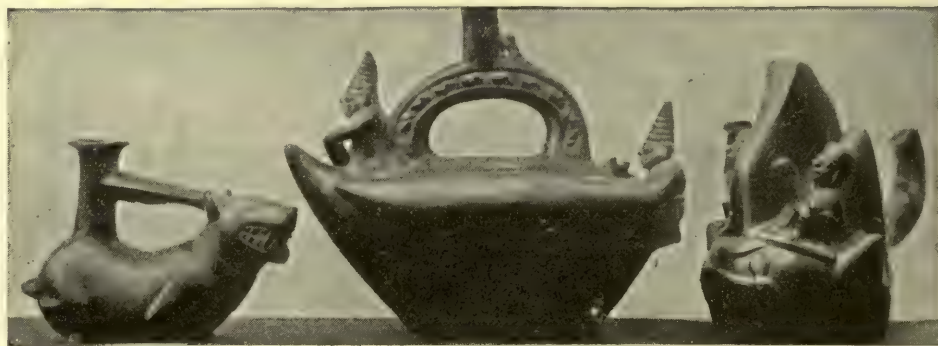
an extensive conspiracy had been formed with the secret object of deposing the Inca Pachacutec and setting up in his place a descendant of the ancient royal family, the Inca Urco. But Pachacutec was informed in time of these treasonable designs, and before the conspirators had the least suspicion that their plans were known the Inca Urco suddenly and mysteriously disappeared in the royal palace, from which he was never again to issue.



ORNAMENTAL VASES EXECUTED IN BLACK TERRACOTTA



TERRACOTTA VASES IN THE FORM OF ANIMALS



OTHER SPECIMENS OF WORKMANSHIP IN BLACK TERRACOTTA

DECORATIVE POTTERY OF THE INCAS: ANTIQUE SPECIMENS FROM PERU

Photos Mansell

AMERICA
BEFORE
COLUMBUS



NATIVE
CIVILISATIONS
OF SOUTH
AMERICA
VI

THE FLOURISHING OF THE INCAS THEIR SOCIAL AND RELIGIOUS LIFE

PACHACUTEK won great fame for himself by his victorious campaigns towards the four quarters of the heavens; and with just pride he named his territory Tahuantinsuyu—the four cardinal points. But he left a still greater memorial of himself in the internal organisation of the Inca kingdom, an organisation that far surpassed anything else of the kind in existence upon American soil. To consider Peru under the Incas as a kingdom founded upon a basis of socialism is to misunderstand entirely the facts of the case.

The Inca rule was an absolute theocracy, at the head of which was the Inca, who concentrated temporal and religious functions in his own person as being the child of the sun-god and the chief priest of that divinity. His power was absolute over body and soul, property and person, of his subjects; the only laws that were binding upon him were his own will and pleasure, and these he might change to any extent he pleased. A consequence of this powerful position was that the Inca alone possessed real property; the whole extent of the kingdom belonged to him, with every living creature in it; other men had only the usufruct of his property. It appears a hard ordinance that, as our historical sources inform us, a third of the produce of the country was appropriated for the support of the ruler, another third for the service of the sun, while only a third remained for the people. But the oppression of this law is only apparent; the Inca and the sun represented the financial department of modern times, and a large proportion of the people lived at their expense.

Moreover, those portions of the land assigned to the people lay in the neighbourhood of the villages and places of population; as such settlements had been made purposely on land that was capable of cultivation, the best third of the land was in the hands of the people.

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The extensive tablelands of the Puna, the high mountain ranges, were included in the land belonging to the sun and to the Inca, where the low temperature precluded agriculture. Here was the home of the great herds of llamas, which belonged to the Inca or to the sun. The possession of these animals was forbidden to the common people. The llama is the only large domestic animal which the American natives possessed. Different kinds of fowl, and in many districts little dogs, were tamed and bred; but they were of use to mankind only as food; their possession was a compensation for the increasing difficulty of gaining a living by hunting. The llama alone has the character of a domestic animal, in the full sense of the word, among the ancient Americans, for it alone was of use to man during its lifetime.

Home of the Llama

In early times it was never used for riding or drawing vehicles. However, the Peruvians of the highlands—for the climate of the coast is fatal to the llama, and for that reason the animal was never used there in Inca times—made constant use of it as a beast of burden. The llama was equally valuable for its wool. Like the sheep, it can be shorn from time to time without occasioning the least injury to its health; and in the Inca kingdom its wool was always woven into stuffs.

The llamas, in common with all living animals, were the exclusive property of the Inca—that is, of the state. State servants performed the shearing, and officials divided the raw wool among the people according to their powers of working it and their necessities. The wool was not only woven for the clothing of the people, but a portion of it served in lieu of taxes. A kind of factory for wool-weaving went on in the abodes of the ladies of the sun, the Acllas; these were monastical retreats where hundreds of

**Work of
the Sun
Maidens**

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girls were constantly employed in spinning and weaving. Here was also worked the finer wool of the vicuna, a variety of the llama which ran wild and was driven into herds only at shearing-time. These fine stuffs were not intended for the common people, but were invariably worn by the Incas. For the royal families,

Llamas on the Royal Table and especially for the ruling Inca, the sun-maidens were obliged to provide large supplies of the finest stuffs; for state ceremonial exacted from the king that he should always be clothed in spotlessly new garments. In the provinces, also, the Acllas worked the coarser wool of the llama, and thereby contributed to supply the royal storehouses, in which large quantities of woollen garments were collected for the use of the army in time of war.

The llama was also important as a food supply; game was neither plentiful nor varied, and the people could not have supported themselves thereby. Most of the inhabitants certainly kept and bred fowls in and near their houses. But beyond this there existed only the flesh of the llama, and a number of these animals were daily slaughtered for the Inca's table. But the herds were so numerous and increased so rapidly, that now and again a large number of them were slaughtered and divided among the people, who were thus feasted by the monarch. The llama had descended from its wild forefathers, the guanaco and the vicuna, and had become a permanent species. Such a development must have required an extremely long period of time for its accomplishment, and consequently the llama must have been tamed long previous to the Inca rule.

But although this acquisition of civilisation was not due to the Incas, yet they were the first peoples to systematise the breeding and the use of the animal. On one of his first campaigns of conquest the Inca Pachacutec subdued the district of Huilcabamba, and found that the veins of gold there situated were already being extensively worked by the natives. Although they could work only the upper strata, and with their primitive implements could naturally extract the gold from only the richest lodes, yet the astonishing amount of gold and silver which the Spaniards found in the Inca kingdom shows that the work was profitable. The people were obliged to pay their

tribute to the Inca from these mining operations. The work demanded of them was not hard; they were always allowed sufficient time to satisfy their own personal requirements. But the mountain peoples had as little claim to the precious metal which they brought forth to the light of day as had the owners of the corn in the lowland, or the shepherds of the llamas, to the possession of these goods; for real property belonged to the Inca alone.

Gold and silver, the medium of exchange in the whole civilised world, brought neither power nor influence into the Inca kingdom, but were employed for the decoration of the gods and kings and were worthless in the hands of individuals. A state which had no money and practically no property had also nothing wherewith to pay taxes. But the citizen himself was the property, the slave, of the state, and consequently he owed a certain portion of his labour to the state. In the larger settlements a considerable number of the inhabitants paid their tribute in different kinds of manufacture, in which, in some cases, they had attained considerable skill. The ancient

Agriculture a Divine Service Peruvian weaving, both of woollen and cotton stuffs, though carried on with very simple implements, is of high quality in respect of both fineness and durability; and the weavers understood the employment of large and artistic patterns by the use of different coloured threads. Still more remarkable is the Peruvian pottery-ware, with its great variety of decoration, which is invariably tasteful, and with its rich and artistic colouring. Their artistic powers were almost exclusively exercised upon this pottery; and ware that has been shaped into realistic but very fantastic forms has come down to us from almost all the provinces of the Inca kingdom.

The country people were employed in herding the flocks of llama, or in cultivating the lands belonging to the Inca and the sun. The plough was unknown to the Peruvians; they turned up the soil with an implement like a spade, and, as they invariably worked in large numbers, digging in rows, their fields must have had a furrowed appearance. Agriculture was the foundation of the Inca kingdom; it was regarded as divine service, and every subject of the kingdom was entrusted with its accomplishment. When the season for tilling the soil had come round,

THE FLOURISHING OF THE INCAS

the Inca himself, followed by all his court, proceeded in great pomp to a field which was dedicated to the sun in the neighbourhood of Cuzco, and began the agriculture in person with religious ceremonies. Each of his courtiers had to follow his example.

The order was then transmitted by officials through the country that the subjects should begin the year's work upon the land. The head of every family was in annual possession of a particular plot of land proportioned to the needs of his household; if his family increased, so did his plot, a piece half the size of the original allotment being given him for each son, and a quarter of the original size for each daughter. But the land remained state property, and upon the death or migration of the occupant it reverted to the Crown. Cultivation was carried on in common and under the superintendence of overseers. First were tilled the lands of the sun; then those of individual citizens, including the allotments of the poor, the sick, and the officials; and finally the lands of the Inca were cultivated. In the milder districts of the kingdom a number of

Methods of Inca Agriculture

varieties of maize were raised. The mandioc, several kinds of pumpkins, beans, and some other vegetables, were grown more in the gardens around the houses than in the fields. But in many districts of the Inca kingdom the cold climate was unfavourable to these vegetables. In such cases potatoes formed the staple of agriculture.

The Inca-Peruvians carried on agriculture not only extensively, but also with great energy. The use of manure, for which purpose, after they had conquered the sea-coast, they used guano, was as little a discovery of theirs as was the science of irrigation. In the narrow valleys of the highlands they increased the ground available for agriculture by making terraces for miles, at a great expense of labour, in the precipitous mountain heights, which were then carefully irrigated by canals from the river running down the valley.

Land that was in this way brought under cultivation naturally belonged only to the Incas; the amount of work necessary for its success was far more than individual sources could provide, and presupposed a strong and close organisation. A family of at least ten inhabitants formed the smallest administrative unity in the kingdom; an inferior official superintended

this, whose business it was to care for and watch over it. Ten of such unities formed a "hundred"; here the superintendent was obliged to keep an eye upon the districts of his ten inferior officials, besides the care of his own office. The next political unity was formed of ten "hundreds," and a "ten thousand" was

How the Kingdom was Governed

generally equivalent to a province of the kingdom. The highest power naturally lay in the hands of the Inca, who had a consultative council in Cuzco. But besides this council the governors of the provinces—who were generally chosen from the Inca class when political necessities had not left the rule in the hands of one of the old conquered princes—and also the officials of smaller districts, were obliged from time to time to appear personally before the central power, or to send in their reports with the help of the quipus.

By this means the government was fully informed concerning the inhabitants of each province and their capabilities, and also concerning the supplies and provisions which every district was obliged to make, to meet its own necessities, and even to have a surplus in hand. Moreover, the overseers were constantly inspected by officials of a higher class. In cases where faults were discovered, the guilty person was punished, and so also were his superiors, who ought to have informed the subjects of their obligations and to have assured themselves that these were fulfilled.

As the common man, the "hatunruna," possessed no real property, he might also pay his taxes in military service. The Incas did not maintain a standing army, and any careful or extensive training in the use of arms seems to have been the privilege of the Incas alone, and of the sons of the nobles from the subject provinces. It is by no means clear in what manner the hatunruna obtained the training necessary to enable him to fulfil

Taxes paid in Military Service

his part in the constant and distant campaigns of the Incas. There was, however, a system for regularly relieving the garrisons that were maintained in unsettled quarters, as well as for conveying reinforcements to the battlefields; an arrangement must consequently have been on foot somewhat similar to the old Prussian system of relief, according to which the hatunruna returned to his agricultural pursuits after a short period

of active service, until he was again called out in due course, though generally only for a very limited space of time.

An important duty of the overseers of the "hundreds" was to see that the people performed their allotted portion of work; the women were included under this decree. Their essential duties in their households consisted in the care of the garden and of the poultry; but most important were the spinning and weaving, which they were obliged to practise beyond the mere satisfaction of their household necessities, as we have already stated. Idleness was a punishable offence in the

Inca kingdom. Even when women made visits to their neighbours they took their work with them, unless the person visited was of higher rank than her visitor; in this case it was the duty of the visitor to ask for permission to take her work. It was the business of the local overseers to apportion as much land to each inhabitant as would suffice for the maintenance of himself and his wife. If, as happened in exceptional cases, the land belonging to the community did not suffice, the inhabitants had a claim upon the lands of the Inca; but when the population of a province rose to such an extent that the land was no longer capable of supporting them, colonists, known as "mitimaes," were sent out into less thickly populated or new provinces. The state undertook the duty of providing for the support of each individual, but avoided poverty, with its evil results of beggary and vagabondism, which was, in fact, entirely obviated by the necessity of labour and the prohibition

which was laid upon an unauthorised change of residence. The state also recognised its duty of providing for its subjects in extraordinary cases; and, thanks to the general industry, the storehouses situated in every province were sufficiently full of supplies to meet all necessities.

The conception of private property was not wholly unfamiliar to the inhabitants of the Inca state. Houses and land were, it is true, the property of the community, to which they reverted at the death of the holder. But so ample was the provision made for the support of the individual that he was able to put aside some savings,

and to lay out these economies as he wished, even in the purchase of luxuries, as the state, or community, provided his necessities. The objects found in the Peruvian cemeteries show us that luxuries were not altogether unknown even among the common people, and this personal property was almost invariably interred with its dead owner. As new members were born into the family, the land allotted to it was increased. The young Inca citizens passed a long and tranquil childhood. It was incumbent on their parents to give them a practical education and to train them in domestic duties, but it was not till the completion of their twenty-fourth year that the state made any claim upon the young people. At twenty-five they were married. Marriage was also strictly controlled by the law,

which denied the Inca-Peruvian any opportunity of personal initiative from the cradle to the grave. The public officials were required to keep a register of persons



ANCIENT AMERICA'S DOMESTIC ANIMAL

The only large domestic animal possessed by the American natives, the llama was much prized by them, the Peruvians of the highlands making constant use of it as a beast of burden, while it was also valuable on account of its wool, which was woven for the clothing of the people.



PRESENT-DAY DESCENDANTS OF THE ANCIENT INCA PEOPLES OF PERU

Underwood

of both sexes who every year attained a marriageable age in their districts. Each year a day was appointed for the celebration of marriages throughout the kingdom.

The young men and maidens, clad in their best attire, appeared before the officers of their district, who publicly, but with little in the way of ceremony, assigned to each youth a young maiden. On the same day, at Cuzco, the Inca himself officiated for those of noble blood. The consent of the young people was superfluous in the eyes of the law, but, when possible, their inclinations were considered. No one, however, might marry outside of his own district. The usual allotment of land was now made to the young couple, and the community saw to the building of their simple and primitive dwelling. In this way they entered the ranks of the *hatun-runas*, accepting all the responsibilities involved, except that for the first year—the honeymoon of their married life—they remained exempt from public service. The duties of labour were obligatory up to the age of fifty; after that time the community, as also in cases of temporary or permanent disablement, became responsible

for their support to the end of their lives. While military service was demanded of the men, another tax was levied by the Inca upon the women. Every year the officials were required to select from the number of young maidens the best and most beautiful for the service of the ruler and of the sun. In each province the Inca had his palace and a house attached to it, in which these maidens led a privileged if a laborious existence. Whenever the Inca came into residence it was from their number that he chose the partner of his couch. If the connection resulted in pregnancy, the young mother returned to her native home, where great respect was paid both to her and to the child.

Very different was the lot of those selected for the service of the sun. Like the royal wives, they led a favoured but industrious life in religious seclusion. But in their case the law against incontinence was inviolable, and a cruel death awaited the sun-maiden and her seducer if this statute was transgressed. That the Incas should occasionally have taken children from their parents in their tenderest years for sacrifice to the sun-god is hardly probable

Such sacrifices may in earlier times have been offered to the sun-god and to the deities of many of the peoples afterwards subdued. But such a usage is wholly inconsistent with the spirit of the national religion as it was practised under the later Incas. In the Inca state religion was much more a matter of politics than of

Politics in the Inca Religion dogma. The late Incas therefore imposed no restrictions upon the various races of their subjects as to the number of gods they might desire to worship. It was also from political motives that they established at Cuzco the temples and priests of the various religions; for thus they were in continual touch with the forces which they knew to exercise a great influence upon the masses.

The introduction into every newly acquired province of sun-worship as a supreme and universal form of religion was also meant to serve their political ends. Although there was at Cuzco a high priest of the sun-god, who exercised a kind of control over priests of all denominations throughout the country, yet the real head of the church was the Inca. As descendant of the sun-god he stood nearer to the deity than his highest priest, while as child of the sun he was himself entitled to divine honours after his death, upon which he returned to his ancestor. Dissensions between king and priesthood, which recur so frequently in the communities of Central America, were rendered impossible by the semi-divine character of the Inca. For this reason the decided revolution which the Inca Huiracocha brought about in the domain of religious politics never at any place or time caused the slightest difficulty, although it raised at once a host of formidable rivals to the priesthood of the sun.

The privileged position, and the endowment of a third of the land, remained their exclusive right; but even the Inca kings

Feasts in Honour of the Sun-God made numerous and costly offerings to the temples of Huiracocha and Pachacamak.

The laborious life of the masses was relieved only by the festivals which were celebrated in honour of the sun-god; once at least in each month the inhabitants of each locality were summoned by the officials to a feast. Upon these occasions the flesh of the llama, set apart by the Inca for the people, was certainly consumed; at the same time large

quantities of the maize beer called "aka" were drunk, and dance and song contributed to the enjoyment. Similar holidays followed the completion of all the more important tasks; the cultivation of the fields, the gathering in of the harvest, or any exceptional undertaking—house-building, roadmaking, and the like. Besides these, however, there were four high festivals common to all the land: the Hatun Raimi, the Cusqui Raimi, the Situa Raimi, and the Huaracuy.

The Hatun (or Inti) Raimi was celebrated at the time of the winter solstice (the 21st of June), and was the first and principal festival by which the year was reckoned. Lasting for nine days, it celebrated the return of the source of life and heat, the sun having reached and passed its extreme northern declination. The first three festival days were devoted to preparation; every inhabitant of the Inca kingdom was obliged to abstain from all food, with the exception of a little uncooked maize and water, and, if married, from conjugal intercourse; all fires were extinguished. During these days it was

Religious Ceremonies at Cuzco the duty of the young unmarried women in each household, and of the sun-maidens for the use of the Inca and his court,

to prepare the sacred bread, the first food that might be taken after the fast. The principal ceremony took place on the morning of the fourth day. At the approach of dawn the whole population poured out of their houses into the open space where the priests were awaiting the sunrise. Here the thronging multitude crouched barefooted in a wide circle around the priests, and, no one daring to rise, awaited the moment when the sun's orb should appear above the horizon, to greet it with solemn sacrifice.

Naturally it was at Cuzco that the feast was celebrated in its most magnificent form. Here, upon that day, the square of Haucapata, around which stood the royal palaces, was thronged with the highest and noblest from every province of the kingdom. Clothed in festal attire, but barefooted and in the same attitude of humility, they, too, awaited the moment of sunrise. Thereupon the Inca king was the first to rise; upon this day, as being the child of the sun, he himself performed the office of high-priest. In either hand he held a cup inlaid with gold, filled to the brim with aka. While he

THE FLOURISHING OF THE INCAS

addressed a solemn greeting to the rising luminary, he emptied the cup in his right hand into a golden basin that stood before him, whence golden pipes conveyed the libation to the Temple of the Sun.

The cup in his left hand he put to his own lips, and then invited his nearest relatives, and any on whom he wished to confer distinction, to take from this cup, with small golden chalices, a portion for themselves. Then, together with the higher priests and dignitaries, the Inca entered the temple in order to pay his adoration to the image of the god. The Temple of the Sun had undergone, at the hands of the Inca Pachacutec, a thorough restoration and extension; since which time, owing to its rich adornment with precious metals, it had been known by the name of Coricancha, "the Golden Precinct."

It was an extensive group of buildings, encircled by walls of squared masonry, lying somewhat nearer the mountains than the market-place. In and around the great court were a number of edifices, the most sacred of which was the Hall of the Sun. Here, on the wall at the back

The Sacred Hall of the Sun

of the temple, so placed as each morning to catch the rays of the rising sun, was the great golden disc, encircled with rays, which constituted the Holy of Holies. Walls and roof, as well as the altars before this and the other shrines of the temple, were richly overlaid with gold, while along the walls, seated in their litters and wrapped in the most costly fabrics, stood the perfectly preserved mummies of the dead Incas. Behind the Hall of the Sun a similar room contained the image of the moon and the mummies of the coyas, the imperial wives who had given to the kingdom an heir to the throne. Here all ornamentation was in silver. Then followed smaller sanctuaries for the other heavenly bodies, the divine retinue of Inti, and for his earthly followers, the priests.

After libations and incense had been offered at these shrines also, the Inca returned to the square, where the rest awaited him; for on this day the great sacrifices were performed not in the enclosed court of the temple, but in the open market-place. The priests now led forth a young black llama. Black animals, as being more uniform in colour, were more highly prized than white ones, which as a rule showed darker patches; moreover black was the sacred colour and

was specially favoured by the Inca. While the unbound victim was held by priests of lower grade, the high-priest cut open the body with an obsidian knife and tore out the heart and entrails. From these he foretold the events of the year that was just beginning. The body was now divided, and, in order to burn it as

How the Festivals were Observed a sacrifice, the high-priest lighted with a burning-glass, which he wore on his right wrist, the new fire from which

all the hearths in the city were kindled afresh. This concluded the more important ceremonies, which now gave place to general rejoicings. Numbers of the common llamas were slaughtered, but only the blood and entrails were offered to the god; the flesh was assigned to the people for food. The remaining days of the festival were spent in eating and drinking, dancing and singing, and revels of every description, the freedom of which often degenerated into licence. For the people the feast closed on the ninth day, after six days of rejoicing.

The Inca and his attendants seem to have continued the celebrations for a month, and even then to have lamented their brief duration. The second of the common festivals, the Cusqui Raimi, was connected with agriculture. It was celebrated before the beginning of harvest, and was a sort of procession in honour of the sun-god, who, after everything in mortal power had been done to secure the success of the crops, was implored with his divine favour to bless and increase the harvest. This feast also was followed by days of continuous and unrestrained revelry, meant, no doubt, to provide the people with recreation after the labours of the field.

Of a different character was the third feast, or Situa Raimi, which fell at the time of the spring equinox, in September. The assumption that every calamity or unexpected event which befell the individual or

The Place and Power of Evil Spirits

the community was due to some transgression was current in the Inca kingdom as elsewhere, and was reflected in the laws. But if the guilt of the individual might be expiated by atonement or punishment, it still adhered to the community, which had likewise to bear the weight of all the terrors which threatened it from the evil spirits with which earth and air were peopled. To appease or drive away these was the object of the feast. It was

preceded, like the others, by a three-days' fast and the preparation of sacred bread. In addition, however, to those intended for food, other loaves were baked, mixed with the blood of sacrifice. With this bread each man, on the fourth day at sunrise, rubbed his body, after bathing in running water, in order to purify himself. On the

The Great Day of the Festival

morning of the great day of the festival the crowning ceremony took place at the fortress of Sacsahuaman. This was a huge fortification built of enormous blocks of stone, which rose in five tiers on one of the heights commanding the city from the north-east. Its erection had been commenced by the Inca Huiracocha at the time when the Chanca invasion had threatened the as yet utterly defenceless city with extinction. The Inca Pachacutec had successfully completed the mighty structure. From the gate of the fortress, at the Situa Raimi, issued four youths of the Inca race, clad in complete armour. Brandishing their spears, they ran at full speed through town and country in the direction of the four cardinal points. Everywhere the gaily clad multitudes flocked from their dwellings to meet them and greeted them with loud

shouts and waving of garments. At fixed distances others of the Inca race, similarly attired, waited to receive the lance in turn, and carried it farther and farther until the boundary of the district was passed. There the lance was driven deep into the earth, and it was supposed that the evil spirits had thus been expelled from the soil. During the night the Incas waved burning torches, which they extinguished on the farther side of the boundary in the streams that flowed out of the country. In this way the powers of darkness were also put to flight, and the following days were devoted to festivity.

While at the Situa Raimi the chief actors were the Inca youths, who symbolically delivered the people from the dangers that threatened them. **Attaining Manhood's Privileges** The fourth great feast, the Huaracuy, was almost exclusively confined to the Inca class, and the people could participate only in the general rejoicings. This feast marked the conclusion of the probations which the children of Inca descent, as well as the sons of the noblest families in the provinces, had to undergo before they might be admitted to the privileges of manhood.

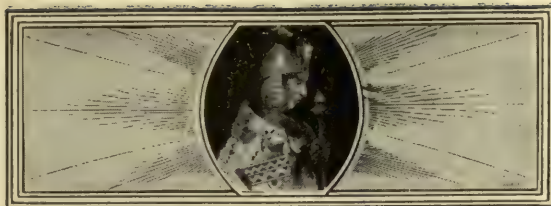


THE LAST INCA RULER: ATAHUALPA FALLS BEFORE THE SPANIARDS

Rau

The story of Atahualpa is told at length in the chapter which begins on the next page. A son of Huaina Capak, he became ruler of the kingdom of Quito on his father's death, and found occasion to go to war with his brother Huascar, who had succeeded to the Inca throne. Victory resting with Atahualpa, he was acknowledged as the ruler of the dual kingdom; but the Inca power was nearing its end, and Atahualpa fell before the conquering march of the Spanish forces.

AMERICA
BEFORE
COLUMBUS



NATIVE
CIVILISATIONS
OF SOUTH
AMERICA
VII

LAST DAYS OF THE INCA KINGDOM THE LANDING OF THE SPANIARDS IN AMERICA

IN spite of the efforts of the Incas to maintain the belief that the whole of the Inca class was descended from Manco Capak, and through him from the sun-god himself, they had not been able to banish from the memory of men the fact that a part of the caste could establish no blood-kinship with the founder of the dynasty. In the earliest times, in addition to the ruler of Cuzco, many other small dynasties of the Peruvian highlands had assumed the designation of Inca, which, like "Manco" and "Capak," was originally a mere title and not the name of a race. Whether these, on their incorporation into the empire of the son of the sun, maintained the name and privileges of the Inca is doubtful.

Thus arose a new class in the community, which, though unable to establish any blood-relationship with the Incas, shared all their privileges. When Manco Capak came to Cuzco, he was attended by a small

**Alcavizas
Driven
From Cuzco**

band of dependents, with whose help he drove the Alcavizas from the city. In the infancy of the state these naturally formed a privileged class, and when, later, the constant extension of the empire brought to the capital a mixed population of every conceivable element, they and their posterity, the aristocracy of Cuzco, were admitted to all the essential privileges enjoyed by those of pure Inca blood.

On the other hand, the Inca stock increased with great rapidity by the natural process of reproduction. Among the masses no man was permitted to marry more than one wife, but from this law the whole of the Inca caste was exempt, and the ruler might also grant dispensation to others. For himself, especially, it was not only a privilege to possess a number of wives, but also a duty to leave behind him as numerous a progeny as possible. Only one, however, of the ruler's wives shared his royal rank; she bore the name of coya, and took an important part in the public ceremonial that was incumbent upon the Inca. The

Inca Pachacutec was the first to enact that the natural sister or the nearest female relation of the ruling Inca should always be chosen as the coya, in order as far as possible to preserve the blood of the children of the sun from contamination. In addition to the coya, the Inca might take

**Marriage
Laws of
the Incas** as many wives as he wished; if they belonged to the Inca class, they and their children were considered legitimate. The

Inca also sought daughters in marriage from his vassal princes; this was considered a high honour, and no less so if the Inca married one of his illegitimate daughters to a dignitary or a vassal prince. Marriage between men and women of the Inca class was celebrated in the same way as that of the people, with the exception that the Inca ruler in person performed the ceremony in Cuzco. Youths of Inca blood might take only one wife of their own accord, though they might also have numerous concubines; but after the completion of an important task, or upon the occasion of a feast, the ruler often rewarded his kinsmen with one or more wives.

Individual rulers are said to have left as many as a hundred children, or even more. Each of these became the founder of a family, the connection of which with the common stock was preserved in their name and insignia; such families united to worship the mummy of their ancestor in the Temple of the Sun. By law the Inca king was as completely master of the bodies and souls of the Incas as of

**The Incas
Specially
Favoured** his other subjects; but, as a matter of fact, the Inca class obtained special privileges in the kingdom of Tahuantinsuyu. The duty of labour, which was incumbent upon everybody in the Inca state, was not binding upon them. A memorial of the time when the Incas formed a small band in the middle of a foreign race was preserved in the right which they had of eating at the ruler's

table ; later this right became so extended that the Inca was obliged to support the whole of the Inca caste, and also all the officials of the kingdom who were not Incas, with the produce of that third of the land which belonged to him. The highest temporal and religious offices were filled with sons of the Inca race ; and the

Education Among the Incas

man who could show his value in such a position was certain of the monarch's favour. To this many of the Inca sons owed their large palaces and bands of attendants both in the capitals and in the provinces. The education imparted to the Inca caste justified their special privileges. In the case of the young girls known as "ñusta," their education was a more refined type of that received by the daughters of the people and the sun-maidens.

On the other hand, the young men, the "auqui," not only received a careful intellectual training, as previously mentioned, but were also obliged to undergo a thorough course of physical exercise. This was concluded, when the auqui had reached his sixteenth year, with the ordeal which preceded the feast of Huaracuy, and gave him the right of assuming the name and the insignia of an Inca. These competitions consisted of a foot-race, individual contests with weapons, similar contests between two bands, and finally a battle between two army corps, one of which had to defend a fortress while another attacked it. They also had to prove that they were able to bear pain and toil without complaining, and had to show their capability of making their own clothes and equipment.

When these tests had been gone through successfully, the youthful band would be led before the king by their masters, who were highly experienced Incas and Amautas. He invested them with the insignia of their new position, and henceforward they were no longer called auqui, but took the title of Inca. The

Spaniards' Name for the Incas

king bored the lobe of each one's ear with a golden needle, and from that time he might wear gold and silver ear ornaments. This habit was carried to such an extent that the Spaniards gave the Incas the name of Orejones, "large-eared," because the weight of their ornaments had drawn out the lobes to a remarkable extent. Up to this point the youths had been clothed simply and almost inadequately ; but on their festival day their

nearest relations put upon them fine sandals, as they were worn by grown-up Incas, fastened the "huara" of fine vicuna wool around their loins, and placed the head-covering, "llautu," upon their hair, which was now closely cropped. The marks of rank worn by the ruler coincided very nearly with these ; only his llautu was bordered with a fine fringe of red wool—in the case of heirs to the throne of full age, the colour was yellow—which descended to the eyebrows, and a thick tassel of similar colour, the "paicha," adorned his right temple.

A juristic system can scarcely exist in a kingdom where the ruler is the source of all law and of every decree ; the officials to whom the Inca deputed the rule of certain portions of the people decided what matters were punishable and what could be allowed. As there was no real property, there could be no pecuniary troubles and no fines. Anyone who was guilty of an offence had outraged the laws of the Inca, the representative of the highest god, and was therefore almost invariably punished with death ; that is to say, he was either strangled, knocked on the head,

The Severe Punishment of Law-Breakers

shot with arrows, or thrown from the rocks. The sun-maidens guilty of incontinence were walled up alive ; but their seducers, and also the entire family which had brought up such an adept in wickedness, were put to death, and the place where their house had stood was sown with salt and left deserted for ever.

The greater became the extent of the Inca kingdom, the more important became the means of quick communication. In early times the Incas had confronted the question of crossing the high mountain ranges which divided one highland valley from another, and the watercourses which rushed furiously down the deeper valleys. When the Inca Pachacutec marched against Huilcabamba, his enemy broke down the bridges over the Urubamba, and thought thereby to oppose an impassable obstacle to the advance of the Inca army ; but the Inca called up engineers and workmen from the capitals and from the whole country to his aid, and a new bridge was completed after a few weeks.

The Inca Pachacutec, who here showed his great faculty for organisation, had a high-road built from Cuzco as far as Cajamarca, a distance of nearly a hundred miles ; it ran over passes and through

LAST DAYS OF THE INCA KINGDOM

valleys, over marshes and through rocks, and its remains are in existence to-day. In the time of the Spanish rule this high-road formed the main entry of the country, as did a similar high-road built by the Inca Yupanki, running on the west of Pachacutec's road down to the coast, which it followed as far as Tumbes, the most northern settlement of the Inca kingdom on the sea, lying not far from the Gulf of Guayaquil.

As the Peruvians were totally unacquainted with vehicles, the roads were intended only for the traffic of men, and at most for the llamas that were used as beasts of burden; consequently they were only eighteen to twenty-two feet broad, and were enclosed on either side by a parapet of some height. Upon deep precipices they became narrower, and flights of steps occasionally crossed the ranges which divided the several valleys. Where there were no fords, the rivers were crossed by bridges of stone, which in the mountain ranges gave place to suspension bridges constructed of hempen rope and of woven lianas. Long boarded paths gave a footing across the marshes of the Paramos and the watersheds. At

Resting-places in the Mountains

regular intervals resting-places were built near the road, called "tambos"; they consisted of a walled-in courtyard intended for beasts of burden, to which adjoined two open rooms for the travellers themselves. Smaller refuges at shorter intervals on all the most important lines of communication were established for the public service. In them were stationed the foot-messengers, known as "chasquis," by whose help news of important events, from the remotest provinces, could be brought to the capital in a short space of time.

How highly swiftness of foot was valued can be seen from the fact that it was included in the tests which the sons of the Incas had to undergo. Thus even among the common people the foot-messenger was a privileged person. Several runners were invariably stationed in the little post-houses; as often as a messenger came in, wearied by the rapidity with which he had passed over his section, one of those waiting took over his message, which was delivered either by word of mouth or by means of the quipus, to take it on to the next station at an equal speed. The service is said to have been so admirably organised that fresh sea-fish were by no means a rarity at the ruler's table.

It may be an injustice to the merits of the other Inca kings to ascribe nearly all valuable institutions to the Inca Pachacutec; but his name shows that he must have established the lion's share of these. "Pachacutec" means "world-organiser."

He was succeeded upon the throne of Tahuantinsuyu by his eldest son, Tupak Yupanki, who, like his father, united military reputation to a capacity for keen and vigorous government at home. Under his rule the Inca kingdom was extended in nearly every direction until it recovered that territory which it possessed at the time of the conquest. He completed the subjugation of the kingdom of Chimú, and pressed his conquest forward to Quito.

On the other side he changed the confederation with the princes round the lake of Titicaca into a firm dominion over them, while he also extended his power into Chili as far as the Rio Maule. It was never the Inca policy to introduce the organisation of the ancient provinces, in all its carefully thought out details, into new districts immediately upon their subjugation. Where similar institutions already existed, as they did in the kingdom of Chimú, the process of assimilation was probably distinctly rapid. But other provinces, whose institutions showed marked differences, could only by slow degrees be incorporated in the social organism of the Inca state, as is proved by the frequent recurrence of revolts under the Inca régime. The Inca rulers found colonisation the best means of repressing these; Tupak Yupanki is said constantly to have practised it.

At the time of the Spanish conquest the language of the Yunca had not entirely died out upon the lake of Titicaca, among the mitimaes whom Tupak Yupanki had settled there after the conquest of the Chimú kingdom. This Inca was a zealous worshipper of Huiracocha; after the conquest of Hatun-Colla he

The Spaniards on American Soil

made a pilgrimage to his shrine on the lake of Titicaca, and adorned it with new buildings in his honour, though these included a sun-temple and a house for the sun-maidens. At the same time he prosecuted those unifying religious tendencies which the Incas had made their guiding principle since the time of the Inca Huiracocha. When his son, Huaina Capak, ascended the throne, the Spaniards had

already got a footing upon American soil ; reports of their arrival can hardly have failed to reach Cuzco. The subjects of the Inca upon the coast land carried on an extensive traffic upon the Pacific seaboard, exchanging their products for those of their northern neighbours, and such traffic must have been under the control and protection of the government.

Conquest of the Quito Kingdom

But the Incas were too entirely convinced of their own superiority to have had any suspicion that their period of prosperity was coming to a rapid end. The reign of Huaina Capak is full of those relations with the kingdom of Quito which were to exercise such influence upon the fate of his dynasty.

The first act of his government was to take revenge upon the inhabitants of Quito for the blood of the Inca-Peruvians who had been slain upon the revolt of the provinces conquered by Tupak Yupanki. This business kept him far from the capital for many years. At that time the Inca developed a strong preference for the milder climate on the north of his kingdom ; in Tumebamba, which he had fitted up as his headquarters during the campaign, he built palaces, temples, and gardens of a splendour almost equal to those of Cuzco. And when he eventually succeeded in completing the conquest of the kingdom of Quito he married the Princess Paccha, the only daughter of the last ruler, in order to unite the province more closely to his person and to his kingdom.

Huaina Capak was not very fortunate in his domestic life. While his father was alive he held the position of heir to the throne, according to the new laws of succession, and had therefore chosen his eldest sister to be his legal wife ; but she bore him no children. Thereupon he took two other wives of the Inca race, a younger sister and a cousin, on the condition that the one who first bore him a son should receive the privileges of the coya. Shortly afterwards his sister presented

Heir to the Inca Throne

him with a successor, Huascar. But while he was absent in Quito he began to forget the mother and child ; and Paccha, whom he had made a legal wife in defiance of the law which governed his domestic affairs—for this princess was not of the Inca race—became doubly dear to him when she presented him with a boy whose lively spirit won his father's heart even in his childhood. Huaina Capak was naturally

obliged to return at intervals to Cuzco, that being still the central point of the kingdom ; but as soon as he had performed his state duties he again returned to his beloved Quito, and there he spent the greater portion of his life.

The Inca kingdom was at this time capable of extension only upon its northern boundary. On the west the ocean formed the boundary of the country for hundreds of miles. In the south the kingdom extended into Chili, where the highlands, which became wilder and wilder at every step, seemed scarcely worth the trouble of conquest. On the east every single inhabitant of the fruitful valleys of the Cordilleras was subject to his rule.

The boundless primeval forest which bordered the lowland was inhabited only by wandering tribes of savages who avoided every attempt to subdue them by vanishing without a trace as soon as the Inca armies approached ; and the unhealthy climate, and the impossibility of following their usual mode of life, induced the Incas to renounce all plans of conquest in this direction. Upon the north, however, they were enticed by a valuable territory

Domestic Troubles of Inca King

where the conditions of life were very similar to those of their home. Huaina Capak turned his arms more than once in this direction ; and Quito was an admirable base of operations for expeditions northward. It does not appear that Paccha ever accompanied her husband to Cuzco ; the feeling among the Incas, who were so zealous to preserve the purity of their race, was anything but favourable towards her. It is equally unlikely that the mother of Huascar accompanied her husband to Quito ; but the young prince was summoned there at least once, with many of his elder relations, to learn from his father's mouth the manner in which he desired the government to be conducted in the event of his death.

He could not persuade himself entirely to exclude his favourite son from the succession. Atahualpa, who had grown up to the entire satisfaction of his father, accompanied him everywhere on his journeys and campaigns, and his lively manners had made him the favourite of the army. On the other hand, Huascar developed but slowly : his character was serious and quiet ; the court which the ruler had abandoned, the coya who was scorned and rejected, and the danger

LAST DAYS OF THE INCA KINGDOM

that he himself might be disinherited—all these facts tended to darken his early years. Huaina Capak did not venture upon the extreme step of changing the succession; but he stipulated that the kingdom of Quito should be held in independence by his favourite Atahualpa, and that Huascar should inherit the Inca kingdom, even as Huaina Capak had himself received it upon his accession.

Huascar gladly agreed not to disturb his brother in his possessions, and to remain on terms of friendship with him; the arrangement was for him a relief from long anxiety. But Atahualpa had also reason for satisfaction: he was better provided for than an Inca's inferior son had ever been, and in his person was revived the royal house of Quito. It was only the legitimist party at the court of Cuzco who were dissatisfied; they thought it was a disgrace that the unity of the kingdom should be endangered by the caprice of Huaina Capak, that a province should be lost again to the Sun state which had been bought with the blood of its subjects under two kings, and all for the sake of a child who had neither position nor right. However, such objections were naturally not ventured in face of the unlimited powers of Huaina Capak, and when he died a few years later, in the prime of life, in an epidemic of smallpox in Quito, he was able to close his eyes in the belief that he had secured the welfare of his kingdom and of his favourite.

Atahualpa had developed early, and, after sharing for years in all his father's business of war and peace, had become fully acquainted with the duties of a ruler. He immediately undertook the government of the state to which his father had destined him, and there remained at his side all those who had served Huaina Capak in his lifetime. In Cuzco, on the other hand, people clung obstinately to the old regulations. Huascar was not

yet of age, and a council of the oldest relations of the dead monarch held the reins of power. In their eyes the capricious dispositions of Huaina Capak did not hold good, because they violated the succession of the house; they were willing to recognise Atahualpa only as the representative of the Inca for the province of Quito. The obligation of presenting himself in Cuzco to pay allegiance to the new king was as binding upon him as upon all the members of the royal family. The regents did not, however, venture to answer Atahualpa's contemptuous silence by an open attack. It was only when Huascar had been proclaimed monarch in Cuzco, after undergoing the customary period of preparation, and with all the usual brilliant festivities,

that a different policy was begun. In order to make trial of the feeling entertained in Quito towards the claims of the legitimists, Huascar demanded of Atahualpa that he should send to Cuzco the wife and the treasures of the late monarch which were still in Quito.

Atahualpa rejected this demand, appealing

to the last wishes of Huaina Capak; yet he allowed it to be clearly understood that he was ready to continue negotiations. The embassy that Huascar had sent to Quito proposed to Atahualpa that he should put in an appearance as quickly as possible in Cuzco; he only asked to be allowed to make his entry with the ceremonial that befitted his rank, to be given a space of time for preparation, and to be permitted to bring a large company of retainers.

These demands the Inca was foolish enough to concede. A period of feverish energy now began in Quito. All the old generals of Huaina Capak who had remained in Quito from inclination to the prince and respect to his father's will were now called up to Atahualpa and ordered to reorganise their contingents. It was not difficult, with the treasures of



Huascar



Atahualpa

THE LAST OF THE INCAS

The sons of Huaina Capak by different mothers, Huascar received the kingdom of Peru at his father's death, while Atahualpa obtained the kingdom of Quito. In a war between the brothers, Atahualpa was victorious, but was subsequently strangled by the Spaniards.

the old king, to provide the equipment of a powerful army; and small divisions of this force started toward Cuzco under pretext of forming the retinue of Atahualpa, who was coming to offer his allegiance. When the Inca's eyes were at last opened, it was not difficult for him to call his subjects together in arms in great

The Last of the Incas at War

numbers; but these contingents did not form an army. A few miles from Cuzco, not far from the place where once the Inca Huiracocha had beaten the Chanca in a bloody conflict, the armies of the brothers met. The young troops of Huascar could not withstand the superior tactics of the enemy; Huascar himself fell into the hands of the conquerors as he was trying to cut his way through their ranks to Cuzco. Thereupon all resistance ceased throughout the kingdom, and the capital surrendered unconditionally to the victorious army. Atahualpa made a cowardly use of his victory. Under the pretence of settling the limits which should divide his power from that of Huascar, he summoned every member of the Inca blood to Cuzco; but every person who entered the town was immediately arrested, and slain by his generals, who held the town under martial law.

Atahualpa had not been able to forget that the Incas were not willing to recognise his equality, as he was the son of a foreigner; those alone were spared who had favoured him from the outset. But Cuzco was no longer the heart of the kingdom. Atahualpa disliked visiting the scene of his dreadful vengeance; such departments of the government as had to be carried on in Cuzco were undertaken by his officials. He himself made a journey of inspection through the central provinces of the kingdom. But before he had returned from this expedition, news reached him that strangers had landed in the extreme north of his kingdom. These were

Landing of Pizarro in America

Pizarro and his following. The Spaniards have often been reproached with their ruthless destruction in the New World of a civilisation which was but little inferior to their own, and afforded the best hopes for future prosperity. The romantic enthusiasm for the manners and customs of the past which possessed men in the first half of our century extended also to the New World. The organisation of the Aztec states, and

still more that of the Inca kingdom, appeared to be the ideal of a polity in which king and people, in their mutual relations, had solved with complete success the great difficulty of all political science—namely, to make the freedom and prosperity of individuals exactly correspond with the general good.

It is already sufficiently plain, from what we have said, that such a theory is refuted by an examination of the actual conditions of the Inca kingdom. Undoubtedly the Inca state succeeded to a remarkable extent in solving the problem of an extensive state control for the good of each individual subject; but this success was attained only by means of an unparalleled system of surveillance which reduced individuals to the position of helpless instruments in the community, and entirely destroyed all personal freedom.

Equally erroneous is the idea that anything remarkable was to be expected from a further development of the ancient American civilisation. Neither the Aztec nor the Inca kingdom represented the highest point of an uninterrupted develop-

The Decadence of Aztec and Inca Civilisations

ment. The sites of civilisation in the new continent were the scene of the rise and fall of peoples, of their exodus, and of their immigration even as was the case in wide districts inhabited by uncivilised races, and the rise of a people implied a retrogression in civilisation no less in the New World than in the Old. Both the Aztec and the Inca kingdoms were in their decadence at the time of the Spanish invasion. The Inca kingdom had certainly passed through more than one internal dynastic revolution without receiving any important check to its development. But it would not so easily have survived the revolution which must have followed upon the fall of the Inca race—a fall brought about by the passionate hatred of Atahualpa.

Moreover, even here the size of the kingdom, in spite of the wonderful centralisation of the government, had almost reached the limits of what was possible at that period. The extraordinarily rapid successes of Cortes and Pizarro, who were able to shatter mighty kingdoms with a handful of hungry adventurers, can be explained only by the fact that both civilisations were in their decadence and bore the germs of destruction within themselves.

THE FLAGS THAT FLY IN THE FOUR WINDS OF HEAVEN



THE FAMILIAR FLAGS OF FIFTY NATIONS



DISCOVERY OF AMERICA & THE SPANISH CONQUEST

THE LURE OF THE GOLDEN EAST AND HOW IT LED TO WESTERN DISCOVERY

THE ideas prevailing in the fifteenth century as to the formation of the earth's surface left no room for the existence of a new continent; although the learned had withdrawn their opposition to the theory of the earth being round, yet this doctrine had hardly penetrated the minds of the public, and a number of other erroneous ideas still prevailed both in learned and in illiterate circles. Petrus de Alliaco's "Imago Mundi" was still the text book for the science of geography, and no more modern work on this subject could seriously claim precedence over it.

The interest taken in the subject, moreover, remained for a long time very limited. The constructive method of the scholars of the day satisfied people so entirely that they did not consider it worth their while to acquaint themselves practically with that which lay outside their range of experience. Nor, indeed, was it eventually the science of the time from which proceeded that impulse which in its final consequences led to the knowledge by mankind of the habitable globe.

Even the Crusades, which were undoubtedly an important factor in the extension of man's knowledge of the earth and of its inhabitants, affected that knowledge only within the limits of the world as it was already known through the traditions of antiquity. The Crusades might, indeed, serve to render such knowledge more real, and to reconnect those threads which had been severed by the events of the intermediate centuries; but they neither chiefly nor directly enlarged the stock of geographical knowledge.

Such a knowledge was, however, evolved by the more intimate contact between the Christian and Mohammedan civilisations which the Crusades had brought about. The teaching of Mohammed had then already extended beyond the limits of the

The First Voyages to the East

world which had been disclosed to previous ages. The brisk intercourse between the holy city of Mecca and all the districts inhabited by the followers of Mohammed, which was the natural consequence of the prophet's precepts in the first instance, not only enriched the knowledge of the Arabs, but also, through them, became the means of its extension in the Old World, and thus gave rise to the first voyages undertaken by two enterprising Italian merchants, Niccolo de Conti and Marco Polo, into the remotest regions of the East.

The news of the immense wealth of the kingdom of the Great Khan, of the town of Cathay, and of the island of Zipangu—that is to say, in China and Japan—which these travellers had either seen personally or heard from eye-witnesses, gave a powerful stimulus in mercantile circles to the extension of the knowledge, enterprise, and business of the time. This impulse was, moreover, not confined to those circles. The development of closer relations with the East led to the knowledge that Christianity had advanced further than had hitherto been imagined.

In place of the legendary tales of the journeys of the Apostle St. Thomas, who was said to have preached the gospel to the heathen in the Farthest East, came the story of the Christian realm of Prester John, which was reputed to have a remote but

happy and brilliant existence on the other side of that great desert which formed the boundary of the Old World of civilisation. The desire to join hands with these distant fellow believers, and with their help to open up new regions for the spreading of the gospel, which mission in the Old World was continually suffering reverses from

Fabulous Treasures of the East

Mohammedan rule, was combined with the thirst felt by adventurers and merchants for the fabulous treasures of the East. The first attempts to discover a route to the Indies sprang from these motives. The Italians were the chief originators of such ideas, but the political disruptions of their country proved a hindrance to the carrying out of any extensive enterprises on the part of Italy.

It was rather the small kingdom of Portugal which, through accidental circumstances, became the focus of these ideas. This kingdom, which on the land side was cut off by the Spanish states, was, both by Nature and by political necessity, dependent on the sea, and a large colony of foreigners, among whom the Italians were numerous represented, quickened the spirit of enterprise of its own people and brought them into contact with all that went on in the wider circles of the civilised world. It was a peculiarly fortunate circumstance that in the person of the infante Henry—to whom posterity has given the name of "the Navigator," although he had scarcely ever been on board a ship—a man arose who brought energy and organising capacity to bear on the efforts to procure for Christianity a wider extension, and for the Old World a more direct connection with the legendary East.

When, at length, such voyages of discovery, originally undertaken entirely on Prince Henry's account, no longer merely involved sacrifices without returning anything save purely theoretical gains, Portuguese vessels pushed farther and farther along the coasts of Africa, at

Prince Henry the Patron of Discovery

first, entirely at Henry's instigation, taking the course indicated by him, with the definite object of discovering a way to the riches of India and to the land of Prester John. They did not, it is true, attain their goal until after the New World had arisen from the waters of the Atlantic Ocean before the astonished eyes of Columbus and his companions; nevertheless, it was their action as pioneers which alone

rendered possible the feat of Columbus. Cristoforo Colombo or Colon—or, as we will here call him by his more familiar name, Christopher Columbus—the son of a weaver and innkeeper, Domenico Colombo, by his wife, Susanna Fontanarossa, was born about the year 1447. As his father travelled backward and forward several times between Genoa and Savona, Christopher's birthplace cannot be fixed, for he appears to have looked on both towns as his home. All the pretensions of the numerous other towns are without justification. He was the eldest of Domenico's five children, three brothers and one sister being born after him. The weavers of Genoa had their own guild school, which, no doubt, Christopher attended.

Naturally, the education which he received there was not very advanced, and the knowledge which he acquired in this period—and for those times it was not inconsiderable—was due to his bright intelligence and unusual energy. The boy had early to assist his father in his trade, although he seems to have had but slight inclination for the work, and even after

**Character of
Christopher
Columbus** he had succeeded in obtaining a berth on a merchant ship and had made some voyages, on his return home he was again obliged to resume his former occupation. It is certain that up to his twenty-fifth year he had not been able to free himself permanently. In 1474 he disappeared from Genoa, and some years later he reappeared at Lisbon as a sailor, making every endeavour to conceal the fact that he had ever been anything else.

Columbus was not one of those great geniuses who, in the certain consciousness of their own worth, look back upon their path with peace and satisfaction. Like many of his contemporary countrymen, he was an aspirer in whom a fair amount of self-complacency and boastfulness was joined to cleverness and energy—a combination which in hundreds of cases produces a charlatan, and in rare instances a true man. He was ashamed of his low origin and of his humble trade; but if we were to rely only on his own words we should assume that he had been of gentle birth and a sailor from his youth.

As we can prove this to have been untrue, we may also doubt his alleged naval achievements. It is quite possible that he sailed across the Mediterranean Sea as far as the Levant, and had seen the

THE LURE OF THE GOLDEN EAST

harbours on the coasts of the Atlantic, from England on the north to the coasts of Guinea on the south—the southern limit of the Portuguese voyages. Evidently he did not always sail as a peaceful merchant, for he claims to have gone as a privateer in the service of King René, which must have been about the year 1472, when René supported the rebellious people of Barcelona; and in 1476 he is said to have been shipwrecked on the Portuguese coast at the time when the Venetian gondoliers were engaged in severe battles with the dreaded French pirate Coullon. His naval activity can, however, have been neither of long duration nor very conspicuous, for the accounts of his career give no time for the former, and the practical proofs of his nautical skill were inadequate to support the idea of long and profound training. Columbus passed a number of uneventful years in Portugal, during which time he married Felipa Moniz, in whose veins the Italian blood of the renowned Perestrello flowed. This connection may possibly have had its influence on the formation of his life. In Portugal he evolved the plan for the western passage to India, and for this purpose the influence which he may have acquired through his wife's relations possibly proved of some use to him. The story that he had received from a dying sailor the secret of the discovery of a whole western continent, as a Christmas legacy at the house of his mother-in-law in the Azores, is so clumsy a fabrication that it is surprising that it has been so long credited. Truly such a gift was not needed to assist Columbus in his plan. The idea that the Indies might be reached by a shorter route by sailing around the globe in a straight westerly direction seemed more feasible to the

Portuguese the more their discoveries led them to realise that the African continent stretched itself out in a southerly direction, necessitating a deviation from the eastern course. No doubt, in the first instance, the practicability of a western passage

to the Indies was primarily taken into serious consideration by Portuguese circles; and as the opinions of Portuguese sailors were not considered sufficient evidence, the advice of foreign authorities on the cosmography of that region was also obtained. Fernam Martin, the king's confessor, consulted the celebrated physician and cosmographer, Paolo dal Pozzo Toscanelli, concerning this question. Following up this inquiry, the great Florentine drew up a somewhat lengthy document on the practicability of a western

passage to Asia. It was this pamphlet that, probably for the first time, gave a chart illustrative of that part of the unexplored world which was to be opened up by the western passage. By means

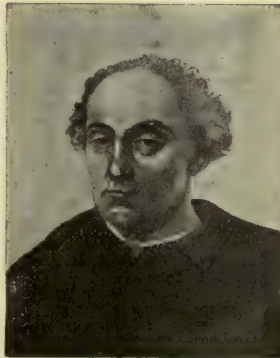
of this letter and the accompanying chart, which later on—probably by illegal means—came into the hands of Columbus, Toscanelli became the actual originator of the discovery of America. He realised as little, of course, as did Columbus to what results his instructions were destined to lead, but, taking into consideration the almost slavish dependence with which Columbus allowed himself to be guided in his voyage of discovery by the map and directions of Toscanelli, one cannot help crediting the latter with a very considerable share in the solution

of the problem of the western passage. Stress must more especially be laid upon this point because Toscanelli's share did not consist of a combination of crude ideas and fatalism which, as in the case of Columbus, might lead an



CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS

Born about 1447, Columbus earned undying fame by his discovery of America. From a picture painted in the fifteenth century.



PAOLO TOSCANELLI

A celebrated Florentine physician and cosmographer, he prepared a document on the practicability of a western passage to Asia, and by following his directions Columbus discovered America.

adventurer to sacrifice his life in the pursuit of a foolhardy idea; it was the result of well-founded and careful scientific research, which, though not proving to be absolutely correct, was nevertheless, in its principles, completely justified. Columbus's whole plan probably first originated through his having received information of Toscanelli's statements, and then in his adopting and giving out these views as his own. Such an origin of the plan nullifies the statement that the account of the voyages of the Icelanders and Esquimaux to the North American continent had influenced the development of Columbus's ideas.

Columbus certainly maintained that he had penetrated in a northerly direction a hundred miles beyond Thule; but, considering that Thule was by no means an established geographical fact during the fifteenth century, the whole bears the stamp of a swaggering invention. The Arctic archipelago no doubt forms a bridge between the old and the new continents in the extreme north, and we know for certain that a connection, apart from Columbus's achievement, has been established in both directions, from west to east and from east to west, between the inhabitants of both continents, the Esquimaux having penetrated as far as Greenland; the Icelanders, on the other hand, having been driven by east winds to the coasts of northern America.

About 1000 A.D. Leif Eriksen—and some years after, his widow with Thorfinn Karlsevj—founded colonies of Norse Vikings on American soil, which are mentioned in the Northern Sagas. Through unfavourable circumstances, however, these colonies after a few years died out. It is impossible that the northern Scandinavian bards had the slightest idea that Vinland and Huitramannaland—for so they called the newly discovered regions

—were anything but a continuation of the chain of islands extending from Iceland and Farøe and beyond Greenland, and it is equally improbable that, even if it had reached the ears of Columbus, it would have proved of any significance to the furtherance of his plan for a western passage to the treasures of India.

The sailors' tales were of far greater value, not only to Columbus, but also to the council commissioned by the king

to consider the possibility of a western passage. The Atlantic Ocean had cast up on many different parts of the Old World coasts specimens which showed that it also washed a completely different world; and the fact that these objects thrown up were often in good preservation strengthened the idea that the trans-Atlantic distance of the east coast of Asia, which was regarded as the only possible home of these objects, could not be insurmountably great.

The same inference was drawn from the reports of the few travellers who had penetrated as far as the Great Khan. These had purposely somewhat exaggerated the distances, and had unintentionally overrated the deviations from the direct course, so that people had been led to the conviction that the distance from Europe by land to Quinsay and Zaitun must greatly exceed the half circumference of the globe, and accordingly the distance by sea, calculated in the western passage, would prove decidedly less. The great difficulty presenting itself, however, was that the greater part of the passage would have to

be traversed without coming in sight of land, and as a matter of fact, this really meant more than was then assumed.

At that time people had indeed dared to attempt to cross the Mediterranean irrespective of the land, all its basins being well known in every direction, and the ships trading between the Mediterranean and Flanders, England and the Baltic countries, sometimes lost sight of land for days; but in general, in crossing the ocean from Guinea to England, the vessels always coasted, for the sailor kept within reach of land in case of threatening danger.

There were supposed to be numerous more or less extensive islands in the Atlantic Ocean, and these were duly entered on the ancient maps. Among these were Antilia, the remnant of the continent whose destruction Plato describes in "Timæus," St. Brandan's Isle, and the Island of the Seven Cities, besides many others. Yet, although they appeared plainly on the maps, the sailors who had for days been driven out of their course on the ocean had never seen more than mere tracts of land on the farthest horizon, which invariably vanished from view on nearer approach. Columbus did not allow himself to be scared by such considerations; though conscious that he might go for

**Columbus's
Indebtedness to
Toscanelli**

**The Dangers
of the
Unknown Seas**

**What
Columbus
Sought**



COLUMBUS EXPLAINING HIS PROJECT TO THE MONKS OF LA RABIDA

From the painting by Izquierdo, photo T.acoste



BEFORE THE COUNCIL OF SALAMANCA: COLUMBUS PLEADING HIS CAUSE

Columbus pleaded long and earnestly before he persuaded people to assist him in his maritime expeditions by providing the necessary means. His first assured partisans were the guardians of the Franciscan monastery, La Rabida, at Huelva, and the doctor of the neighbouring little town of Palos, Garcia Fernandez. He pleaded in vain before a learned assembly at Salamanca, and was about to journey abroad, in order to offer his plans to foreign monarchs, when in Queen Isabella he found a staunch friend, whose influence procured him the use of ships for his voyage.

From the painting by Julius Röntgen

weeks and months without discovering land, he was resolved to navigate the boundless ocean: this was the one peculiarity of his plan, and, above all, it merits recognition and regard.

There are no means of ascertaining the truth of Columbus's claim that he urged his project for the western passage upon the King of Portugal during fourteen years. It is, on the contrary, quite certain that he stayed in Portugal for only eight and not for fourteen years, and that during his stay there he was often absent from court for long periods, occupied with other concerns. As a matter of fact, we begin to know more about him and his projects only from the time when he left Portugal.

Neither did Columbus leave voluntarily, but because he had committed an offence for which he could expect only severe punishment. On account of this he deserted his wife and children, and, accompanied solely by his four-year-old son, Diego, fled the country. The nature of his offence is not recorded. Doubtful financial affairs and disputes with the royal officials have been surmised: but probably his crime was more closely connected with his project, for which he had appropriated Toscanelli's letter and chart, the materials most essential to his plan. The commentators of the Toscanelli correspondence have always had to face great difficulties, because the only correct and comprehensible portion is that addressed to Fernam Martin. It is only fair to Columbus, however, to say that some scholars reject the theory that he received any considerable aid from Toscanelli.

Why, then, should not the man who disowned his ancestors and his antecedents, and invented a coat of arms and a noble pedigree for himself, also have invented the postscript to a letter of which Toscanelli is said for years—if Columbus's representations be correct—to have preserved the

The Case Against Columbus

rough draft, and even to have stupidly kept the address and signature—a thing which Columbus did not even do in his forgery? This is also the explanation why King John was so willing to exempt Columbus from punishment and then assure his return when it became apparent that an attempt was to be made from Spain to carry out the project which John, with his seamen, had privately attempted. The plans of Columbus did not meet with

an immediate friendly reception in Spain. He had in this country also to strive with precarious circumstances for some years before he succeeded in gaining a small number of trustworthy followers who, allowing themselves to be convinced by him, assisted in his endeavour to gain a hearing from the king. During this time he made his living by the sale of books and maps, and no doubt, while carrying on this trade, he acquired that singular knowledge of books which, later on, is so prominent in all his writings. An attachment to a young lady of Cordova, Beatrice Enriquez, for a time bound him to the old city of the caliph, but he proved as faithless to his mistress as he had been to his wife.

During the whole of his life he retained an interest in the son whom he had had by her, Fernando Colon, who in course of time became celebrated for his writings and for his library, which are still preserved in Seville. Of his mistress he thought again, and then with remorse, only when, face to face with death, he was making his will. The children did not accompany him on his wanderings. Little Diego was in charge

The First Supporters of the Explorer

of a brother-in-law in Huelva, and Fernando remained for a time with his mother. It was not until after Columbus had attained his desire of gaining over the Spanish rulers in favour of his voyage of discovery that his sons entered the royal service as pages, and from that time they shared their father's successes and failures.

The first assured partisans whom Columbus gained for his plans were the guardian of the Franciscan monastery, La Rabida, at Huelva, Fray Juan Perez de Marchena, and the doctor of the neighbouring little town of Palos, Garcia Fernandez. Both voluntarily occupied their leisure hours with cosmographical studies, and when Columbus, during his flight from Portugal, sought shelter in the monastery, a friendship founded on mutual interests soon sprang up between these men, which was to prove of extraordinary value to Columbus in later years.

At that time he travelled on, after a brief sojourn, in order to make his own way independently, but it was many years before he again found anyone else to take so intelligent an interest in his plans, which were then shrouded with fantastic superfluities. Not until the year 1486 did Celi, Duke of Medina, espouse his cause. The duke probably would have entrusted him with a

ship for a trial voyage from his seaport town of Santa Maria, near Cadiz, had not Queen Isabella, in consequence of the duke's reports, manifested her interest and summoned Columbus to the court. The position of Columbus at that time, with his imperfectly constructed and unscientific ideas, was naturally a difficult one in the presence of the ecclesiastical and secular authorities whom Ferdinand and Isabella had assembled at their court. He was universally pronounced to be an Italian boaster, and the proofs which he gave were not considered convincing either in Cordova or in Salamanca, where he was also permitted to explain his plans before a learned assembly.

It so happened that the final removal of the last remnants of Moorish power on the Iberian Peninsula formed the immediate aim of the Spanish ruler, and demanded the consolidation of all the forces of the country hitherto so imperfectly developed.

**Columbus
Waiting for
Assistance**

Columbus therefore had to remain satisfied, for although the further consideration of his plans was postponed to a more favourable time, the queen's interest, once aroused in his behalf, was the means of procuring him a yearly allowance. It is true that in his impatience the time of waiting seemed long; and he had already formed the resolution to continue his journey and to offer his plans to other monarchs, when at last a combination of various circumstances brought about the fulfilment of his desire, which meanwhile had grown into a fixed idea. He returned to the monastery, La Rabida, with the intention of fetching his son Diego from Huelva, and then travelling to France.

His friends there were so impressed by his projects, which in the course of the negotiations had gained much in clearness and distinctness, that the warden invited him to remain while he made another and final attempt on his behalf. Fray Juan Perez de Marchena had in former years been father-confessor to the queen, and on the strength of this he undertook to press

Columbus's enterprise most warmly upon her attention. The words of the priest fell upon fruitful soil. His message reached the queen while in the camp of Santa Fé before the Moorish capital of Granada, just at the time when the fall of the last hostile

**The Mighty
Ambitions of
the Explorer**

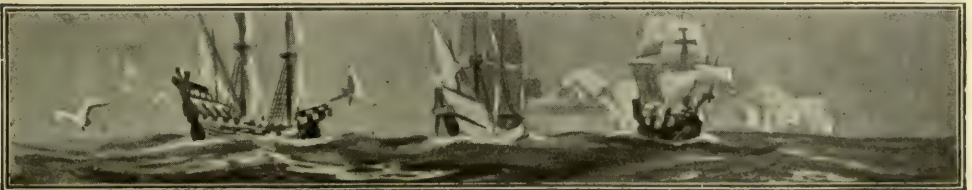
bastion and the final consummation of the great life-work of the Spanish nation was looked forward to with feelings of exultation. Columbus was once more summoned to the court, and received the assurance that after the fall of Granada he should be provided with means for his attempt. He arrived in time to witness the removal of the crescent from the towers of the Alhambra, and the substitution of the cross, which, shining from afar, was raised on the Moorish citadel. In spite of all, the negotiations were, at the last moment, almost frustrated.

Columbus's plans had seemed so sure to his own mind that he, penurious adventurer as he was, conducted himself as though he had kingdoms to give away, and made demands on his own behalf which, if he were to attain his object, would make him richer than the rulers from whom he was now obliged to beg a few hundred dollars. He not only desired a certain share for all time in all the material gain which might accrue through his discoveries, but he also claimed for himself and his descendants the hereditary dignity of a royal admiral over the entire ocean, besides the position of a viceroy in all lands which might be added to the kingdom through his discoveries.

King Ferdinand was particularly enraged by this presumption. All transactions were broken off, and Columbus left

**The Help
of Queen
Isabella**

the camp; but in spite of this, Queen Isabella prevailed upon her husband to agree to the conditions imposed by this extraordinary man. The treaty was drawn up to meet Columbus's demands, and the town of Palos, which was by chance under the obligation of providing certain ships for the royal service, received the order to place them at Columbus's disposal.





THE PINTA, WHICH WAS COMMANDED BY MARTIN ALONZO PINZON



THE NIÑA, WHICH WAS UNDER THE COMMAND OF VINCENT YANEZ PINZON

The ships shown on this page are exact models of the two little caravels which accompanied the Santa Maria on her famous voyage of discovery, and give an excellent idea of the style and size of the tiny vessels which braved the waters of the Atlantic. In 1892 these models set out from Palos to America, following the same route as that taken by the great admiral himself four hundred years before, and were exhibited at the World's Fair at Chicago.

COLUMBUS'S FAMOUS VOYAGE OF DISCOVERY

THE
DISCOVERY
OF
AMERICA



AND
THE SPANISH
CONQUEST
II

THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA

THE THREE FAMOUS VOYAGES OF COLUMBUS

NEVERTHELESS, all difficulties were not yet overcome. Columbus had to bind himself, on his part, to share the cost, for which he, at that time, actually did not possess the means; and the manning of the three vessels caused considerable difficulties as soon as their destination became known. By interesting the influential naval family of Pinzon, at Palos, in his plans, and gaining their material support for the undertaking by promising them a share of his chartered rights, he succeeded in fitting out and manning the ships for the daring voyage. The little fleet—consisting of the Santa Maria, piloted by Columbus himself; the Pinta, under Martin Alonzo Pinzon; and the Niña, with Vincent Yanez Pinzon—was able to put to sea on August 3rd, 1492. These caravels of Columbus were not large vessels—the Santa Maria had a tonnage of only 120; the Pinta, 100; and the Niña, 80—but they proved so exceptionally fitted for the special purpose of these voyages that they were soon after regarded as models when the much larger vessels which had been employed during the first delirium of success proved to give inferior results.

Start of the Famous Voyage

Columbus had taken Toscanelli's chart on board as part of his equipment, and treated it with the absolute and blind faith of a fanatic. After having lost almost three weeks on the Canary Islands while making necessary repairs, he sailed out into the unknown ocean on September 6th. Thence he took a decidedly westerly course, and he was so firmly convinced of its correctness that he would not permit himself to be diverted from this route even by apparent signs of the nearness of land, although he believed they coincided absolutely with Toscanelli's calculations on the chart. He kept a double record of the distance traversed, in order that the sailors should not become fully conscious of the adventurous nature of the voyage. In the public one he pur-

posely minimised the distances; while in the private one, for his own use, his course followed the chart in order that he might ascertain the position of the land. In spite of all, he was not able to keep the courage of his ignorant sailors unshaken. He had reached the

The Trials of the Fateful Voyage

region of the monsoons, and the fact that a strong wind from the east swelled the sails day by day without bringing a sight of the daily promised land made the inexperienced men anxious about the possibility of their return. More than once their fear took the form of animosity against the unknown stranger, who proudly boasted of his authority and was by no means remarkably fitted for seafaring life.

His heart gradually grew heavy, as, morning after morning, the waste of water sparkled with unceasing monotony in the rays of the rising sun. But he did not lose courage or hope, and although the pilots of the other vessels began to lose faith in his ultimate success, they stood firmly by their admiral and assisted him in suppressing the attempts at insubordination which were not infrequent among the crew of the Santa Maria. At last, at the beginning of October, the signs which announced to the sailors the approach of land began to increase, and Columbus impressed on the look-out man the necessity for special care, promising a reward to the one who should first sight the land. During the twilight of October 11th Columbus and several others believed they saw lights across the water in the

Land in Sight at Last

distance; but night approached before a shot from the Pinta in the lead gave the sign that land had actually been sighted. The sails were hurriedly furled and the course altered, but a whole long night withheld from the expectant sailors the final certainty that the land which had so often been announced, only to vanish once more, was this time no phantom.

In the dawn of October 12th, 1492, Columbus and his companions saw a fairly large and well-wooded island rising from the sea ; and before they had manned the boats and gained the island, they had been noticed from its shore. Brown, scantily clad men and women watched the approach of the strangers with un-

Where mistakable astonishment, and
Columbus when the land was reached
First Landed they proved to be good-natured and harmless people, though

practically uncivilised, leading a miserable existence as fishermen and hunters. The land was the island of Guanahani (the modern Watling Island), and its inhabitants, whom the Spaniards, in their conviction that the eastern end of Asia had been reached, had called "Indios," were the Aruac Indians, who had not yet been supplanted by the Caribs.

Although the reality compared unfavourably with the expectations which had been cherished, yet Columbus by the discovery of land had succeeded in his undertaking. Information which he obtained from the natives, in spite of imperfect means of intercourse, showed that this was not an isolated island in the ocean. With solemn public worship he took possession of the land, on behalf of the Catholic rulers of Castile and Aragon, and received the oath of allegiance as viceroy and governor from the crew, who from cowardice and hostility had veered round to the opposite extreme.

During the next few days almost every hour brought fresh surprises. After the ships had run up to a series of small islands, a larger expanse of land, the eastern end of Cuba, was sighted on October 28th, and was called by Columbus Isla Fernandina. After following up the coast in a westerly direction for some days without reaching its termination, he returned to the first anchorage, sailed round the eastern point, and, taking a southeasterly course, came upon a second ex-

Discovery panse of land, to which he gave
of the name of Hispaniola. The
Hispaniola novelty of the impressions received, and the tropical luxuriance of Nature, easily tempted the discoverers to disregard the fact that they had not discovered the slightest trace of the great commercial towns of Eastern Asia, Zaitun, and Quinsay, which they had set out to find. When, in addition to this, the discovery of gold was made by the aid of the inhabitants of Hispaniola, Columbus

was far more anxious to return to Spain, in order that he might bask in the sunshine of the triumph consequent upon success, than to prosecute his discoveries.

He was not to return, however, without tasting the first drop of bitterness in his cup of happiness. On the morning of November 22nd the Pinta made no reply to the signal from the admiral's ship. Martin Alonzo Pinzon had deserted his superior officer, and had set out in search of adventures on his own responsibility, surmising, from the gestures of the natives, the proximity of a region rich in gold. It was the first instance of self-seeking treachery, which, in the course of colonial explorations, was to be followed by many similar ones. This proved the more unfortunate, as the Santa Maria ran aground and had to be abandoned, and thus the Niña, the smallest of the vessels, alone remained to Columbus for the return voyage.

Strange to say, while preparations were being made for the homeward voyage, the Pinta returned, and the admiral, probably more from prudence than from conviction, accepted Pinzon's excuses ;

Columbus and on January 14th, 1493, he
Returns in set sail for home, leaving a
Triumph small company of voluntary settlers behind. Until they reached the Azores the weather proved extraordinarily favourable for the return, but on nearing their native shore the waves again threatened to engulf the secret of the newly discovered continent. The Pinta was driven far towards the north, and finally entered Vigo harbour. Columbus, having escaped the dangers of the storm, arrived at Lisbon, and had the proud satisfaction of flying the colours of Castile on entering the royal harbour of that king whose belief in his now brilliantly vindicated plans he had failed to gain. His journey to the Spanish court, which was then at Barcelona, resembled a triumphal procession across the kingdom, and he stood in triumph before the rulers from whom he had previously departed as a beggar.

Preparations for a second voyage across the ocean, planned on a much larger scale, were begun almost at once after Columbus's landing. Whereas for the first voyage the great difficulty had been to raise a sufficient number of sailors, in this case it was to know how to select the right men from among the thousands who were anxious to go. The first regulations for



COLUMBUS TAKING LEAVE OF THE PRIOR OF LA RABIDA ON HIS VOYAGE OF DISCOVERY TO THE UNKNOWN WEST
From the painting by R. Balaca, photo by Lacoste

the ordering of the colonisation date from the rules then drawn up. On September 25th a fleet consisting of seventeen large vessels, with more than 1,500 men on board, sailed from Seville for the newly discovered land, and was, as in the first instance, favoured by splendid weather. They first reached the island of Dominica

Fate of the First Spanish Colony

by a slightly different course, and then, passing many new islands, they arrived at Hispaniola. Here, however, disenchantments began. The colonists who had remained behind had failed to maintain friendly relations with the natives, whose animosity they had aroused by their brutality, and through their recklessness they had succumbed to a man. Columbus, in order to lessen the impression that this news might make on the new arrivals, chose a different position for the founding of a permanent colony.

The first town on the soil of the New World received the name of Isabella, and through the united exertions of the colonists it rapidly rose above the ground. Not until after Bartholomew Colon had removed the colony and deserted the old town was the name of San Domingo given to the now existing capital. In spite of everything done, most of the settlers were filled with disappointment; they found neither treasures nor riches, and the reward of each man's work and duty seemed likely to be reaped only by future generations. The reports of those who returned home, therefore, sounded anything but encouraging. The value of the new discovery was doubted more and more; and the general feeling of enthusiasm which among all classes of society had preceded Columbus's second voyage was probably never again manifest during the entire history of Spanish colonial enterprise.

Having established a firm footing on Hispaniola, the admiral himself started out for fresh discoveries. As the coast of Cuba had been followed for weeks without its farthest point being reached, Columbus felt convinced that he had arrived at the Asiatic continent, and he thereupon drew up an authentic report which later on was frequently turned into ridicule. On his return to San Domingo he found that public opinion had quite changed. His authority among the disillusioned colonists was greatly shaken, and was still more weakened by the influence of the news of

Columbus Mistaken in his Discovery

the failure of his latest expedition to discover any rich, populous and civilised regions, such as were believed to exist in Eastern Asia. Further reinforcements led by his brother Bartholomew also brought him the news from home that his reputation at court had suffered. When, in addition to all this, discord and rebellion broke out among the colonists, he deemed it advisable to retreat, and to return to Spain, in order to vindicate himself.

This time Columbus was able to leave his brother as his substitute at the head of the youthful colony; and as the latter, of all the brothers, possessed the greatest administrative talent, the admiral could cherish the hope that no such dire consequences would threaten the second colony as those that befell the first on his previous departure. When, without serious difficulty, he had succeeded, before the court of the Spanish rulers, in disproving the charges against him and had justified his actions, the government again placed three ships at his disposal, and he could not resist the desire to start once more with them on a voyage of discovery. On this

The Third Voyage to America

third occasion he kept farther to the south than during his previous attempts, and, coming in touch with only a few islands, he reached the coast of the continent of South America just where it takes a decidedly western course. He followed it up for some distance, but at the highest point of the island Margarita he turned towards the north, more especially because he was himself ailing and in need of rest.

After a more or less uneventful voyage around the islands of the Antilles he arrived safely at Hispaniola. As proof of how vague and unscientific Columbus's cosmological observations were, is his report of his discoveries. In this, led astray by the huge quantity of pure water which the torrent of the Orinoco carries far into the Caribbean Sea, he gave himself up to the most fantastic speculations, believing that he had arrived at the environs of Paradise, and that his mission as the bringer of salvation appointed by God had been visibly established.

Bartholomew Colon had, during his brother's absence, held the reins of government with a firm hand, though he succeeded only in a measure in maintaining peace and order by banishing the most insubordinate members from the colony. Soon all those who for any reason whatever

THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA

were dissatisfied with Colon's government had joined them, and Columbus actually found two hostile camps in place of his peaceful settlement. But the means which he employed to put an end to this state of affairs were the most unfortunate that he could have chosen. He drew up a covenant with the dissatisfied, and he certainly achieved the return of these doubtful factors to his dominion not merely by pardoning the leaders, but by re-establishing them in the positions which they had forfeited through their own fault. By doing this he irretrievably lost the confidence of those who desired the re-establish-

one who had frequently distinguished himself in the Moorish wars; but he proved by no means the right person to deal with the abnormal circumstances in the colonies.

Hatred of the specially favoured strangers, who possessed almost unlimited power in the colony, but did not always make a just use of it, inspired the malcontents, and no doubt Bobadilla participated in this feeling even before he reached Hispaniola. The full judiciary powers, also, over the vice-regent himself with which he had been accredited by the Spanish ruler without doubt gave him a formal right to deprive Columbus



THE CLOSE OF A GREAT CAREER: DEATH OF CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS

Dying at Valladolid on May 21st, 1506, the body of Christopher Columbus was first buried within the precincts of the Franciscan monastery at Valladolid, but, at the instigation of his son, it was eventually removed to a small church in Seville, and thence, in 1537, to San Domingo. In 1798 the discoverer's bones were taken to Havana, and laid to rest in the cathedral there. When, however, Spain lost the remainder of her American colonies in the war of 1898, the remains of the great navigator were brought back to Granada and buried close to those of the Roman Catholic sovereigns.

From the painting by F. Ortego

ment of law and order. While, therefore, one party forced him to make concession after concession, and so led him further from the paths of justice, the other party refused him their support, and turned with complaints toward their native land.

Columbus, in the midst of this confusion, was at his wits' end, and finally joined his entreaties to the complaints of the colonists, requesting the Crown to send an official across the ocean with full powers to examine into the administration of the vice-regent and to re-establish law and order in the unsettled colony. Ferdinand entrusted Francesco de Bobadilla with this difficult mission, as he was a man experienced in native administrative affairs, and

and his brothers of their office. The vice-regent not only submitted unconditionally to the royal decree, but also prevailed upon the less submissive Bartholomew to consent to a similar mode of action. Bobadilla, not content with putting the brothers in chains and transporting them to Spain, confiscated their joint property in the colony in the name of the Crown, and incurred at least the suspicion of party animus, from which he was wholly unable to free himself in spite of the fact of his having inflicted heavy punishments on numerous friends as well as on opponents of the admiral, among whom were many Spaniards. It was a truly humiliating spectacle to behold the man who a few years

previously had returned in triumph to lay a newly discovered world at the feet of his sovereigns now land in chains to sue for the intervention of those rulers against the official whom they had endowed with their authority to act as vice-regent. The order which was sent immediately to Seville, that Columbus should instantly be set at liberty and despatched to the court with all the honours due to his rank, was as much instigated by gratitude as by justice; and of Bobadilla's recall there could be no doubt. But he had to rest content with the recognition of the validity of all his rights, and to see a new man—the choice of the rulers fell upon Nicolas de Ovando—appointed to conduct the inquiry into the grievances of the colonists, while he himself was strictly forbidden, until further notice, to set foot in the colony.

Columbus was not the man to remain passive while a point of law was being decided which might be most unfavourably misconstrued by his inaction. The sovereigns had already given to others leave to undertake voyages of discovery, in spite of the wording of his contracts and without the knowledge and co-operation of Columbus. The best way in which most securely to preserve his rights of viceregal power over the whole region opened up by his discovery seemed to him to be to take as keen an interest as possible in the exploration of the land, which still presented many enigmas to him. The rulers placed no difficulties in his way, and for the fourth time he was entrusted with vessels fitted out for voyages of discovery—four in number—and in the event of necessity he received permission to run up to Hispaniola, but only on his return. How little attention Columbus paid to his duty is shown by the fact that he sailed almost straight to San Domingo and

Columbus Again in America demanded permission to enter the harbour, a demand which Ovando justly enough refused, as it would most certainly only have tended to endanger the peace which had in a measure been restored.

After he had weathered a severe storm in the shelter of the island—a storm that to his satisfaction had engulfed a number of ships just fitted out for a voyage home, and with them his enemy Bobadilla, because Ovando had not seen fit to pay any attention to his warnings regarding it—he turned to the south-west, reached the Gulf

of Honduras, and coasted for months toward the east, the south, and again to the east as far as the Gulf of Darien, where the Central American isthmus joins the southern continent. On this voyage he first heard rumours of another ocean in the west, but as far as Columbus personally was concerned, he only reaped bitter want and privation. These reached their culminating point when the last of the four vessels ran aground on the then uncolonised Jamaica, and he had to wait for months without resources until he succeeded in sending news by a fishing-boat to San Domingo summoning help. When Columbus now actually again set foot in his viceregal residence, he was both mentally and physically too crushed to become a source of danger to the country. He returned to Spain after a short stay and found a fresh blow awaiting him there.

Queen Isabella, to whom he owed the achievement of his first voyage, and who had always proved his kind and sympathetic patroness, was dead, and a dispute for the regency of Castile now arose between King Ferdinand, as husband of the late queen, and his son-in-law, Philip the Handsome, of Burgundy, as the husband of her daughter and heiress, the crazy Joanna.

Death of the Great Discoverer While on the point of paying court to the youthful Philip, to whom Castile deserted when he, contrary to Ferdinand's wish, took over the regency on behalf of his mentally afflicted wife, the heiress to the Castilian throne, Columbus became ill at Valladolid and died there, May 21st, 1506, little noticed and mourned by few. His body in death was destined to be as unresting as he himself had been in life. His corpse, first buried in the Franciscan monastery at Valladolid, was, at the instigation of his natural son Fernando, conveyed to the small church of Santa Maria de las Cuevas in Seville, and thence, in 1537, when his heirs had again been restored to the viceregal administration, to San Domingo.

In 1798, when the Spaniards had to abandon the island of Hispaniola, the discoverer's bones were taken to Havana, and until lately reposed in the cathedral there. When, however, in the war of 1898, Spain lost the remainder of her American colonies, the remains of the great navigator were brought back across the ocean and buried close to the Roman Catholic sovereigns at Granada, the city in which the explorer's hopes were first realised.



THE COMING OF THE CONQUISTADORS BEGINNING OF THE SPANISH COLONISATION

COLUMBUS had died with the firm conviction that the country which he had discovered formed part of the continent of Asia. Even during his fourth voyage he intimated that there was another ocean on the western coast of the Isthmus of Panama, and this prediction would only have been correct had he found himself on a peninsula of Farther India, whose other coast was washed by the waves of the Indian Ocean. The discoveries of other navigators had already begun, even during his lifetime, to shake this conviction.

While Columbus in 1492 was carrying on the negotiations with the Spanish sovereigns, and was almost despairing of a favourable termination, his brother, Bartholomew, was endeavouring to interest the King of England in the project, and had almost achieved a favourable settlement when he received the news of the success of the Spanish deliberations. He thereupon broke off

**John Cabot
Discovers
North America**

the negotiations ; but Henry VII., whose interest had been fully aroused, soon after empowered another Italian, Giovanni Gabotto—more familiarly known to us as John Cabot—to set out in a westerly direction on a voyage of discovery under the protection of the English flag. In two voyages, which succeeded each other very rapidly, Cabot discovered the part of Northern America reaching from Newfoundland almost down to Florida.

After Columbus's third voyage, several Spanish sailors who had taken part in the admiral's voyages obtained leave to take an independent share in the extension of further discoveries. Among these were Hojeda, with the celebrated and oldest geographer of the New World, Juan de la Cosa, and the Florentine, Amerigo Vespucci, whose clear but unreliable descriptions of his experiences first popularised a knowledge of the New World and gave rise to the idea of calling the new continent by his name. Peralonso

Niño and Cristobal Guerra had in the same year (1499) sailed as far as the northern coast of South America, beyond the borders which Columbus had himself reached. Vincente Yañez Pinzon, and after him Diego de Lepe, penetrated to the south as far as Cape St. Augustine, and were the first

**Brazil
Claimed by
Portugal** to discover the delta of the river Amazon. Another accidental discovery, however, proved of greater importance to posterity.

On March 19th, 1500, the Portuguese Pedralvarez Cabral had sailed from Lisbon with thirteen ships with the intention of going to the East Indies by way of the Cape of Good Hope, where the Portuguese two years previously had arrived during their voyages of discovery. In order to avoid the dangerous passage along the west coast of Africa he had turned aside in the open ocean far towards the west, and, being driven farther in that direction by easterly winds, he came in sight of the coast of Brazil on April 22nd. After following the coast-line for a time, he took possession of it in the name of his king.

This mode of procedure was based on the agreement regarding the settlement of a line of demarcation which had been signed between Spain and Portugal almost immediately after Columbus's discovery. That is to say, the rulers of Portugal had, in order to prevent any legal disputes, made Pope Nicholas V. invest them, at the beginning of their era of active discovery, with all lands which they might discover during their voyages to the south and east.

**Claims
Sanctioned by
the Pope** It so happened that Columbus's enterprise was directed towards the same India which, at the time of his first

voyage, had not yet been reached by the Portuguese ; the Spanish sovereigns therefore hastened, after the return of Columbus, to have their claims also sanctioned by the Pope. This was done in the following manner : Pope Alexander VI. awarded to the Spaniards all the land to the west

of the degree of longitude which extended from pole to pole one hundred miles on the other side of the islands of the Azores, and to the Portuguese all that which was situated to the east. Subsequent negotiations between the interested Powers led to an alteration, the line of division being removed 370 Spanish miles

New Territories of Spain and Portugal

to the west, on the farther side of the Cape Verd Islands. The Spaniards imagined, according to the position of the discoveries at that time, that they were surrendering to the Portuguese at the most some islands in the ocean, whereas they hoped to secure for themselves, by the displacement of the line, vast districts in the unknown eastern part of Asia.

Not until the discovery of Cabral was it proved to what extent the South American continent jutted out towards the east as compared with the latitudes reached by Columbus, so that a considerable portion of the newly discovered land belonged thereby to the Portuguese. Moreover, the latter were at first so much occupied with the extension and security of their East Indian territory that they gave but little heed to their western colonial possessions. King Manuel, for state reasons, authorised two voyages in order to gain information about the domains which had devolved on him; but as they did not lead to the discovery of any treasures, either in precious stones or rare spices, he left all subsequent exploration of these countries to the spirit of enterprise in general. During several decades certain Portuguese merchants alone undertook occasional western voyages in order to take to Europe colonial products, especially the highly valuable logwood, "brasil," from which the country in later times received its name.

One of these voyages led to the discovery of the river La Plata in the year 1514; but so trifling was the attention paid by Portugal to events there that the claims of the discoverers were never seriously formulated or protected. The last

The One Town Founded by Columbus

years of Columbus's life, as well as those following his death, were not taken up so much in new discoveries as with organising colonies in the land which had been acquired. Columbus had personally founded only the one town of San Domingo, on Hispaniola. He was averse to the division of the settlements over

the entire island, because he feared that the colonists would thereby be removed from his control, and he deprecated any encroachment on his rights.

During his last voyage Columbus had determined on a second settlement on the coast of Veragua; but it had to be relinquished almost before it had been decided upon, owing to the hostility of the natives. Nicolas de Ovando, who, not without design, in all questions of organisation advised exactly the opposite to that which Columbus ordered, as being the most serviceable to his own interests, first gave an impetus to the extension of the Spanish colonies in the New World. Not only do a number of new towns on Hispaniola owe their existence to him, but Puerto Rico was at least colonised by his order by Juan Ponce de Leon in 1510. No doubt he would have achieved much more in this direction had not the uncertainty of the colonial conditions of government exercised a deadening influence on him.

During his lifetime Columbus had proposed to King Ferdinand to renounce the enjoyment of his rights on condition that his son Diego should be permitted forthwith to possess them in their entirety. Diego urgently reiterated this

The Claims of Columbus's Descendants

demand on the death of his father, and as at first only a few financial concessions were granted to him, and the principal point at issue remained unsettled, he lodged a complaint against the government. Even so the settlement might have been long protracted had not Diego Colon—Columbus—by forming ties of relationship with the ducal house of Alva, gained influential intercessors with King Ferdinand. At any rate, Diego accomplished so much that in 1509 he was again permitted to take over the government of the newly discovered islands, with the title of Royal Governor and Admiral of the Indies. When, in 1511, judgment was passed on his appeal by the Court of First Instance, he was awarded all the official positions, titles, honours and privileges promised to his father in all the countries discovered by him.

Diego Colon was, however, in no wise satisfied with this; he and his descendants had, moreover, for many years been at law with the Crown in order to secure the extension of their claims, not only over all the land which had been discovered by Columbus himself, but also over that which had, in addition to his father's discoveries,

BEGINNING OF THE SPANISH COLONISATION

been won for the Spaniards by others. This lawsuit, however, was mixed up with every imaginable sort of unnecessary litigation, which rendered it practically interminable and anything but honourable for either side, so that it lost its actual significance soon after Diego Colon's death in 1526. His legal successor, who was an utter scamp, surrendered the greater part of the prerogatives so that he might extricate himself from all manner of immoral transactions.

After Diego Colon had again attained his viceregal rights, he endeavoured to extend the province which had been secured by actual colonisation; and his first step in this direction was the founding of a Spanish settlement on the island of Cuba by Velasquez, Diego's friend of long standing, who was commissioned to carry it out. Diego, however, experienced the same fate with him as did his father with Martin Alonzo Pinzon. Velasquez undertook the management of the expedition, for which the vice-regent paid the expenses; but no sooner had he established himself in Cuba than he sent reports of

his successes direct to the court, representing his achievements in such glowing colours that his authorisation as governor of the island as well as vice-regent, for which he had sued, was not denied to him. The first settlement on the continent also followed close upon the discoveries of Columbus.

The eyes of the government, as well as of the lovers of adventure, had been turned to these regions by the gold which he had found in larger quantities on the coast of Veragua. Already in 1508 Alonzo de Hojeda, a veteran exploiter, and Diego de Nicuesa had received permission to found two new colonial provinces which were to extend from the Gulf of Uraba to the east, and from ocean to ocean in the west; but their undertakings had been followed by severe misfortune for many years. Not until both leaders had lost their lives through the vicissitudes incidental to their attempts at colonisation was the foundation of a modest settlement achieved on the coast of Darien, receiving the name of Santa Maria la Antigua.

This settlement also might have been ruined, owing to the lack of necessaries and the passive resistance of the natives, if Vasco Nuñez de Balboa had not made a specially suitable leader, who understood how to turn the undertaking into a

success. Balboa wanted an accredited legal title for his influential position. While, on the one hand, he turned to Spain in order to have his leaderless companions' selection of himself confirmed, on the other hand he strove to commend himself to the government by some prominent deed. To him, as to Columbus, the Indians

had given information about another ocean. The solution of this problem seemed particularly appropriate at a time

when the necessity for a farther advance towards the west began to be felt. Partly through his personal ability in managing the Indians, and partly also by the extreme severity with which he met every attempt at insubordination, Nuñez de Balboa succeeded in confining the difficulties incidental to the crossing of the isthmus almost exclusively to bodily hardships and privations, which are unavoidable on a march through sparsely populated and tropically unhealthy forest-land.

Even so he lost many of his followers before he, as the first European, caught sight of the Pacific Ocean from the last mountain range in the west, and was able some days later, on arriving at the coast, to take possession of it and all the islands situated within it. On account of the treasures of gold and pearls which resulted from this expedition, his discovery proved to be highly important. He was not permitted to reap the fruits of his labours, for, before the news of his discovery reached Spain, Pedrarias Davila had sailed as governor of the province of Darien, and by his jealous distrust had prepared a somewhat inglorious end for Balboa.

The country, however—the Isthmus of Panama and the adjoining northern territories—became the oldest most important continental province of the Spanish colonial kingdom, and on account of its treasures it received the name of Castila del Oro, "Golden Castile." The question whether it

was actually the eastern border of the Asiatic continent which Columbus had discovered received the first

convincing answer through Balboa's discovery. Although people were soon certain that South America was separated from and different from the well-known regions of Asia, a considerable time elapsed before they were willing to concede the same with regard to the northern half of the American continent. On the whole, the knowledge

**Gold on
the Coast of
Veragua**

**De Balboa
Discovers
the Pacific**

**Spain's
Rich Colonial
Kingdom**

of South America made far more rapid progress than that of North America. The mediæval superstition that the produce of the soil increased in value the nearer one got to the equator had in this case a distinct influence; and the rivalry between Spain and Portugal, though it was shortly given up, had its share in directing the expedition of discovery in the direction of the equator. To it we are indebted for the voyages of Amerigo Vespucci (1502) and of Gonzalo Coelho (1503) on the part of Portugal, and for those of Juan Díaz de Solis (1515) on behalf of Spain, which opened up the coasts of South America far beyond the mouth of La Plata. They paved the way for the epoch-making achievement of Fernando de Magalhaens, who, during his search for a south-western passage to the east Asiatic Moluccas, or Spice Islands, which had in the meantime become better known to the Portuguese, sailed through the archipelago at the southern extremity of America.

By actually reaching the Asiatic islands Magalhaens irrefutably exposed Columbus's error and first brought his project to complete realisation. When, after his death, his crew returned home by way of the Cape of Good Hope, the problem of the spherical form of the earth first received a practical solution. This voyage was infinitely more productive of scientific results than the achievement of Columbus.

Up to that time the colonies of the western Indies had hardly fulfilled the hopes which had been centred on their discovery. Many profitable tropical products had been found, and their importation into Spain, as well as the maintenance of the colonists already scattered over extensive tracts of land, who yet depended almost exclusively on their native country for support, had led to tolerably brisk trade intercourse, in which, as the mother country was hardly equal to the whole task

Spain's Unprofitable Colonies

of colonisation, the traders of foreign nations took an active part. The colonies had, however, proved by no means profitable to the state. The equipment of so many expeditions, and the establishment of the necessary administrative apparatus at home and abroad, entailed considerable expense. In spite of the attempt which had been made to raise an adequate revenue by means of duties and taxes, among which the royalty of a

twentieth part on all ore discovered ranked first, yet these had so far yielded but moderate profits. Auriferous sand had, indeed, been discovered on Hispaniola and Cuba and in several places on the continent, and washing for gold had begun; but, owing to the poor quality of the sand, the labour was by no means combined with large profit.

Moreover, the colonies suffered through this discovery; for the natives, overburdened with hard work, diminished with astonishing rapidity, and already in the first third of the sixteenth century threatened, on the islands first inhabited, to become altogether extinct. The colonists, who sought only to enrich themselves by the gold washings as quickly as possible and at any cost, in order that they might lead an idle life of debauchery, extravagance at home or in the settlements, were another dangerous element in the community.

The government must by no means be held entirely responsible for the fact that this state of affairs afterwards assumed such proportions that the Spanish colonies could even with exaggeration have been described as "mining colonies."

European Animals in the New World

Ever since the second voyage of Columbus it had been made a universally binding rule that all vessels conveying emigrants to the new continent should carry with them an equal cargo not only of indigenous cereals and seeds, but also of shrubs, trees, and useful plants for the colonies' experimentation in the various territories.

The European domestic animals, the greater number of which thrived in the New World, were first imported by the Spaniards. America possessed but few, and of these not many were productive. The horse not only became, in many districts of America, an almost indispensable possession, but it even propagated through wild breeding. Cattle also thrived exceedingly well on American soil; not only did they, as livestock, form one of the most marketable articles for trade in the colonies, but their hides constituted one of the staple commodities for export to Europe.

Nothing, however, increased as rapidly among the Indians as did poultry; after the middle of the century the pioneers of western civilisation were greeted by the crowing of a cock, even in districts where the foot of a European had never been before. Experiments with less simple cultivation had also early been made in the colonies.

THE
DISCOVERY
OF
AMERICA



AND
THE SPANISH
CONQUEST
IV

THE SPANIARDS IN MEXICO

THE VICTORIOUS CAMPAIGNS OF CORTES

THE fact that the interest of the government became more and more centred upon the quest for precious ores was chiefly due to the development of the discoveries during the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. Columbus had ascribed but trifling importance to the encounter with the Yucatan trading bark.

He assumed that because the traders had no ore on board none was to be found in their native country or in the land of their destination. The comparative development of civilisation with which the explorers had here first come in touch thus remained unnoticed. Not until the superficially explored coasts of the Gulf of Mexico had been submitted to a closer examination was this half-forgotten trading nation again discovered, and while the newcomers were following in their track the first of the American fairy-lands was disclosed to the view of Europeans. After Diego Velasquez had, during his

**Spanish
Expeditions
in Mexico**

personal attempts to colonise Cuba, achieved such important results, it is not surprising that he showed inclination

and courage for further enterprise. Not many years after, in 1517, he sent a small fleet, in command of Francisco Fernandez de Cordoba, with orders to coast along the continent and barter with the natives.

The ships reached the peninsula of Yucatan, not far from its south-eastern extremity; then followed it in a northerly and westerly direction, and only turned back on meeting with hostility from the natives. They gave astonishing accounts of massive temples in which the cross was adored side by side with stone idols; of towns in which thousands of people lived, following their respective trades. They also reported that the latter did not go about half-naked, like most of the natives whom they had hitherto come across, but were completely clothed, many wearing rich and costly garments almost like Europeans. These

accounts sounded so extremely tempting that Velasquez in the following year decided on sending a second and larger expedition to the same regions, placing his nephew, Juan de Grijalva, at the head. The new fleet sighted land off the island of

**Spaniards
Trading on
the Coast** Cozumel. When the Spaniards found that the coast there extended towards the south, as it did in the west, they were confirmed in their idea that Yucatan must be an island, and they sailed round in the wake of the previous expedition.

Not until they had seen the rising land appear behind the coast, while following the yet undiscovered shores of Mexico farther to the north, did they believe that they had reached the mainland. A vessel returned to Cuba with this intelligence. Grijalva himself, with the remainder of the crews, sailed along the entire coast of the Mexican realm, beyond Panuco in the north, trading and gathering information, without, however, venturing to attempt a settlement. For this, on his return, he had to bear serious reproaches from Diego Velasquez, although his mode of action had been in strict accordance with the terms of the instructions he had received.

The remote possibility that someone else might precede and anticipate him in the discovery awakened in Diego Velasquez the most painful anxiety when the rumours of the discoveries by Cordoba and Grijalva had begun to circulate in the colonies. The preparations for the fitting out of a fresh expedition commenced upon the arrival of

**Cortes in
Command of New
Enterprise**

the first ship, and when Grijalva returned they were carried on with increased energy. Velasquez had already found a leader for this new expedition. His choice had fallen on Fernando Cortes, who, after spending fifteen years in the colonies, where he had gained abundant experience and manifested singular fitness, was alcalde of the capital

Santiago, and one of the most distinguished men of the island. Fernando Cortes is one of the most congenial of all the personalities who have taken part in the extension of the Spanish dominion on American soil. He was descended from a distinguished family

Velasquez
Jealous
of Cortes

of Medellin, had the advantage of a superior education, and had even studied law for two years. Impelled by enthusiasm, he had, in 1504, gone to the newly discovered country, and had accompanied Velasquez during the first colonisation of Cuba, acting for a long time as his private secretary. The prospect of taking part, from that time under better circumstances, in the discovery of a new and promising tract of land was suited both to his temperament and to his desires; and he willingly agreed to share the cost of the expedition out of his own fortune. Velasquez, filled with jealousy, became suspicious of the enthusiasm which Cortes manifested in the affair. Even before the preparations were concluded he repented of his choice of Cortes, and, foolishly enough, allowed this to become apparent; but Cortes was resolved not to be displaced. For this reason he sailed to Trinidad, a western harbour on the island, without awaiting the equipment of his eleven ships. The order which he there received from Velasquez, not to leave until he had joined him for a further conference, served only to hasten him in continuing his journey. He suggested that Cape San Antonio, the western point of Cuba, should be the meeting-place of the fleet.

As the time needed for equipping the vessels threatened to result in dangers for him, he took the risky step of forcibly detaining two ships intended for the conveyance of provisions to Santiago and completed his equipment with their cargo, referring them for payment to Velasquez, whose servant he still nominally was. Cortes was able to put to sea in the middle of February, 1519, with rather more than 400 Europeans on board his eleven ships, with about 200 Indians, sixteen horses, and fourteen guns in addition. It was but a small troop considering all he accomplished

with it, although, indeed, it was looked upon at that time as one of the most imposing and powerful forces that had ever been sent forth to found a new colony.

The voyage was at first along a well-known route to Cozumel, and around Yucatan to Tabasco. During the preceding expeditions the explorers had met chiefly with animosity from the natives at the latter place, so Cortes resolved to punish them. A footing had, however, first to be gained by fighting; but with the help of the muskets, and more especially of the guns and horses, the resistance of the people of Tabasco was overcome. Having felt the edge of the Spanish sword, these natives altered their previous demeanour, and, bringing presents, submitted themselves to him. Two



FERNANDO CORTES
After conquering Mexico, this Spanish soldier developed the mining and agricultural interests of the country, and inaugurated a beneficent system of colonisation.

further strokes of fortune succeeded this good beginning. A Spaniard was rescued from Indian captivity on the coast of Yucatan, where he had been shipwrecked years before with several companions, of whom he remained the only survivor. His knowledge of the dialects and customs of the country proved most useful to Cortes, more especially during the first part of his enterprise. He received similar assistance at Tabasco. There happened to be an Aztec woman among the twenty slaves whom, besides other things, the natives had presented to Cortes as a peace-offering; and this

woman, who received the name of Donna Marina in baptism, rendered most valuable service to Cortes as an interpreter. From her, with whom he had become closely connected as his mistress, he first heard of the kingdom of the Aztecs and of the political conditions which then prevailed there. This information enabled him to form the daring plans for their subjection

which he carried into effect with almost inconceivable success. Cortes sailed from Tabasco along the coast as far as the small island of San Juan de Ulloa, and founded not far distant from it the first Spanish colony on American soil, naming it Villarica de la Vera Cruz. He was accorded a friendly reception by the Aztec chiefs on landing. The news of the events in



CORTES IN MEXICO: A STIRRING EPISODE IN THE SPANISH CAMPAIGN

Receiving costly presents from the Emperor Montezuma II., Cortes sent these to Spain, with reports of his doings, requesting at the same time for himself and his followers the governorship of the country, which he intended to subjugate to the Spanish crown. Then, desiring to be independent of Velasquez, who was associated in the expedition, Cortes, after despatching the best ship to Spain, ordered the destruction of the other vessels, and here he is seen giving orders for the burning of the boats. That accomplished, the followers of Cortes elected him as their commander-in-chief.

From the painting by F. Sans

Tabasco had spread to Montezuma's capital, and opinions as to the reception to be accorded to the strangers had, at the king's council, been very much divided. But the dismay which the defeat of the people of Tabasco had created strengthened their superstitious ideas, according to which Quetzalcoatl was said to have prophesied his return to his people across the eastern ocean. The Spaniards, who had as their attendants the lightning which flashed from the cloud, and the horse which sped along with lightning-like rapidity, seemed to give proof that they were the children of the God of Thunder-clouds and of the Wind. The governor of the coast was therefore ordered to give the strangers a peaceful reception and to meet their demands as far as possible.

The ships, guns, and horses of the Spaniards astonished the natives; but the amazement of the court of Montezuma was still greater, owing to the skill of the Aztec scribe who made faithful sketches of the Spaniards for the illustration of the report sent to the capital. Cortes added a statement to the governor's message, saying that he was the envoy of a great king in the far east, and the bearer of presents to the ruler of Mexico, as well as

of a commission which could be delivered only by word of mouth. Montezuma's reply was not long delayed. It was accompanied by costly presents of gold and beautiful feathers; but it was to the effect that Cortes should be satisfied with these gifts and abstain from a personal visit to the capital.

That, however, was not the intention of the Spaniards, nor did the gifts suffice to induce them to decide on a fruitless return. Cortes repeated his request to be permitted to appear before Montezuma, at the same time making preparations for accomplishing his visit to Mexico in spite of the ruler's desire. He looked around for confederates for such a contingency, more especially as the attitude of the Aztec

The Totonacs governor at the coast began to assume unmistakable signs of unfriendliness. The Totonacs, **Friendly to the Spaniards** who inhabited the neighbouring country along the shore more to the north, and who had but recently submitted reluctantly to the yoke of the Aztecs, had from the beginning been in touch with the Spaniards, and had repeatedly invited them to visit their capital, Cempoalla. Cortes went there with part of his crew, and, returning to Vera Cruz, was

more than satisfied that he could now, with this cover for his line of retreat, safely venture upon a march into the interior. Before all things it was necessary to establish a feeling of unity in his small force. Cortes had no intention of allowing Diego Velasquez to reap the fruits of his labours after the evident signs of animosity which the latter had, at the last, shown towards him; and the majority of his followers were of the same opinion.

Velasquez now himself experienced what he had brought on Diego Colon during the colonisation of Cuba. Cortes sent Montezuma's costly presents straight to Spain with detailed reports, and at the same time demanded for himself and for his followers the governorship of the country, which he intended to subjugate to the Spanish Crown. The pilot, Alaminos, who had directed all the voyages of discovery along this coast, was sent with the best ship, as the bearer of this message, and, in order to prevent any attempt at desertion, the remainder of the fleet was declared to be no longer seaworthy, and was therefore stranded and destroyed. As soon as this had been accomplished, the followers of Cortes declared themselves independent of Velasquez, and again chose Cortes as their commander-in-chief. The followers of Velasquez at least made some show of

opposition, but they were defeated by the majority. After the leaders had been severely punished by way of example, the remainder submitted to the inevitable. Cortes, having made sure of his men, started for the interior with a numerous retinue of native Indians. The farther, however, that he advanced, the more urgently Montezuma warned him against this visit to the capital; and as the Spaniards were repeatedly told by the Indians who accompanied them of the treacherous plans which had been laid by order of the Aztec ruler, the explorers advanced in continual anticipation of war. They first met with open hostility on entering Tlaxcala's territory. These brave

mountaineers, who had for centuries successfully repelled all the attacks of their neighbours, would not now submit to the newcomers. This meant a long and bitter struggle, entailing heavy losses for the Spaniards also, to convince the people of Tlaxcala that even their fearless bravery could avail nothing in the face of firearms. They therefore sued for peace and became true and trusty friends of the Spaniards on hearing from the Totonacs that these strangers also entertained anything but friendly feelings for the Aztec ruler, and that they were resolved to put an end to his tyranny in one way or another. After the Spaniards had rested in Tlaxcala's territory from the fatigues of the march and battles, and had reinforced their



MONTEZUMA II

Aztec emperor of Mexico, he became a prisoner in the hands of the Spaniards, and was killed by his own subjects for demanding that their enemies should depart unmolested.

army with additional men from among the Tlaxcalas, they resumed their march and first reached Cholula. Here they were again met by Montezuma's messengers, who forbade them to remain and advised their return. Cortes at the same time learned from his Indian confederates that the intention was to attack him and his followers on their departure. In order to anticipate this he seized the hostile ringleaders and gave up the town to his Indian allies to pillage. This they accomplished so thoroughly that even the great pyramid of the Temple of Quetzalcoatl was thrown into a heap of

ruins. Montezuma, intimidated, denied all knowledge of the outrage, and did not again venture to oppose the Spaniards.

Unmolested, they climbed over the mountain ridge of Popocatepetl down into the valley of Mexico, and through the highway leading from Iztapalapan they entered Tenochtitlan, which is washed by the sea. Thousands of the natives stared at them with scarcely less astonishment than they themselves felt at the advanced state of civilisation which they encountered at every step. Montezuma, attended by a numerous retinue, met them almost humbly, and assigned to them as their quarters the palace of his father, which, owing to the thick walls surrounding the



THE SPANISH CONQUEST OF MEXICO: THE VICTORY OF CORTES OVER THE AZTECS AT OTUMBA

From the painting by Manuel Ramirez

whole building, was adapted for defence as well as for a dwelling-place. At first the intercourse between the king and the Spaniard was to all appearances quite friendly. Montezuma, nevertheless, with quiet dignity, rejected all attempts at his conversion; on the other hand, he declared his willingness to acknowledge the

Montezuma and the Spaniards Emperor Charles V. as his sovereign and to pay him a high tribute in ores and costly materials. Notwithstanding his

mode of dealing was not straightforward. An attack which had in the meantime been made by the Mexicans on the Spaniards remaining at Vera Cruz was proved to have been instigated by Montezuma, and this treachery served the Spaniards as a pretext for compelling the king to move out of his palace into the Spanish quarter, where he was treated more or less as a prisoner. He was forced to do homage to the emperor with solemn ceremony, and had actually to transfer the government to the Spaniards, who, after the suppression of one attempt to raise another descendant of the royal family to the throne as ruler, began to assume the government and administration of the country in an entirely peaceable manner. The transition would have been accomplished without bloodshed if disturbances from without had not intervened.

Although Alaminos had received orders to sail straight to Spain without touching at the colonial harbours, he could not refrain from stopping at Cuba, though but hurriedly and in secret, to circulate the news of Cortes' extraordinary success. The greater the prize the keener became Velasquez' desire not to allow it to be wrested from him. For this reason he did not content himself with reporting the disloyal conduct of Cortes to Seville, but used every endeavour to fit out a second fleet for an expedition to deprive Cortes of the prize before he could gain a

Rival Fleets of the Spaniards footing in the new country. Panfilo de Narvaez, to whom Velasquez entrusted the duty of

humbling Cortes and bringing him back to a sense of obedience, headed a force which, though considerably superior to that of Cortes, yet lacked cohesion. The vice-regent, Diego Colon, had, without infringing the law, absolutely forbidden Velasquez to endanger Cortes' brilliant achievement by a forcible invasion, and the repeated protests of his envoy, who

accompanied Narvaez' fleet to Vera Cruz, were not without influence on the crew, whose confidence Narvaez, who was less popular as a man than Cortes, failed to gain by his personal qualities.

To the challenge that the town Villarica should be surrendered to him Cortes' representative replied by sending on the messengers to his commander in Mexico. Cortes, from his personal interviews, soon realised that there would not be much difficulty in drawing the men away from their allegiance to Narvaez. He therefore openly entered into negotiations with him for combined action, based upon a division of the administrative powers; but at the same time he collected all his available military forces and moved hurriedly forward to meet Narvaez, leaving a strong garrison, under Pedro de Alvarado, in the capital. As he had been exceedingly well informed by deserters, he was able to surprise Narvaez during a dark night, meeting with hardly any resistance. When the latter leader, who had lost an eye in the battle, had been taken prisoner, almost the whole force which he had

Cortes and his Army in Danger brought with him joined Cortes, only a few, like Narvaez, taking advantage of a permission to return to Cuba. This victory more than doubled Cortes' forces, for Narvaez had brought far more horsemen and riflemen than had Cortes himself.

Meanwhile, a threatening ferment had begun to show itself in Tenochtitlan immediately after the departure of Cortes, and when, during the celebration of a great festival, Alvarado was informed that the crowds were to be incited to attack the Spaniards and liberate Montezuma, he concluded that it would be highly advisable to anticipate such a stroke, and therefore he attacked the rejoicing multitude and dispersed it after a terrible massacre. The Mexicans now on their part changed to open hostility, and surrounded the Spaniards so closely that Alvarado had to summon Cortes to his aid as quickly as possible.

Cortes hastened to Mexico as soon as he had again reorganised his forces. The Spaniards, of course, perceived everywhere a changed and unfriendly disposition towards them, but as they did not find their movements barred, they were able to join the besieged after a sharp fight. Cortes recognised, when too late, that he had gained nothing thereby, but that instead he had

THE SPANIARDS IN MEXICO

made the Spaniards' supremacy, which had been won under such difficulty, dependent upon the issue of a single battle. As soon as he entered the town all paths were closed to him, and the reinforced host of Spaniards found themselves now as hopelessly menaced as Alvarado's division had been.

At first the Spaniards attempted to gain the mastery over their adversaries by open fight, and in spite of the fact that they overthrew thousands of the badly armed natives, the latter seemed continually to increase. Cortes thereupon endeavoured to shelter himself under the authority of the imprisoned king, and the appearance of the latter on the battlements of the palace actually led to a short armistice. When Montezuma asserted that he was not a prisoner and commanded that the Spaniards were to be allowed to depart unmolested, then the rage of his subjects turned on him, and he was struck and wounded by so many stones that he died within a few days.

With him vanished the Mexicans' last remnant of consideration for their opponents. It now became evident to Cortes that he would have to get out of the town, cost what it might. The investment by the enemy was so close that it was not even possible to make secret preparations. Each step of the retreat along the causeway over the lake, which was one and a quarter miles long, had to be gained by fighting. Cortes started, hoping thus to lessen the danger. The enemy, having long foreseen such a contingency, were at once prepared, and pressed forward vigorously, fighting from boats on both sides of the causeway, which was broken through in various places, sending a shower of missiles after the retreating men. Cortes had thrown a portable bridge over the first of the three canals that intersected the causeway, which his men actually succeeded in crossing; but by the time the second canal was reached discipline had already been so weakened by the severity of the attack on all sides that the bridge was no longer available; in fact, it had not even been carried forward. The crowd of fugitives now rushed on, over the bodies of those in advance, and when the mainland was at length reached, order was re-established to some extent.

A cypress-tree marks the spot where the rout ended, and is still preserved as a monument of the "noche triste" (sad night).

Two-thirds of the Spaniards and an even greater proportion of their native allies had either been killed or taken prisoners there, and the latter were bled to death on the altars of the idols. All the artillery, most of the muskets, and forty-six out of the sixty-seven horses were destroyed. Cortes subsequently despatched only a fifth of the golden treasures as a royalty for the Spanish king, the remainder was handed over to the soldiers; but almost everything had been lost in the terrible fight. Those who had escaped were almost without exception wounded and were in a critical position, for they were still many hundreds of miles from the nearest friendly district.

Cortes, thinking that the enemy would have rendered the old road impracticable for him in various ways, marched round the lakes on the northern shore, and actually reached Otumba via Teotihuacan before fresh numbers were added to the pursuing enemy, who intended attacking him in front. There the Spaniards had once more to fight for their lives against an overwhelmingly superior force (Cortes estimated the number of his enemies at 200,000), and the hardly won victory was no doubt due to the circumstance that they were able to kill the enemy's leader in the midst of his warriors. After the battle the Spaniards were, at any rate, able to continue the retreat under less pressure, but not until they entered the territory of Tlaxcalan could they consider themselves safe, the Tlaxcalans having remained faithful to the covenant which they had made with the Spaniards.

Months passed before the Spaniards had recovered from the terrible fatigues of the retreat; and been so far reinforced by contingents from the islands that Cortes could once more think of taking the offensive. He left the hospitable Tlaxcalans during the last weeks of the year 1520, and endeavoured, by the subjection of the neighbouring tribes, to restore the prestige of the Spanish arms. He then attacked Tezcuco, intending to make it the strategic basis from which to prepare for the conquest of the island town of Tenochtitlan. In consequence of the political situation which had been computed by Anahuak, Cortes found confederates at Tezcuco after the banishment of the Aztec governor. Cortes now proved himself to be as good an organiser as he had hitherto been a

**Spanish
Prisoners on
Aztec Altars**

**The Tragic
Fate of
Montezuma**

**Cortes as
an
Organiser**

leader. While carrying on the war against the coast towns, chiefly with the aid of his allies, who were in command of small Spanish divisions, he made a canal from Tezcuco to the Gulf of Mexico, and in a practically unassailable position he built a fleet of thirteen ships, which, on the opening of the canal, put to sea, so that he was able to ward off the troublesome invasion of hostile vessels. Attacks on one coast town after another were now undertaken from both land and sea, those towns which commanded the entrance to the canal being the last to fall. As the fleet at the same time gained a decisive victory over the Mexican fleet of boats, which accordingly now no longer existed as a fighting sea force, the Spaniards were in a position to turn to the invasion of the capital itself. Cuitlahuac, the king who had led the battles of the "noche triste," had died in the city after a reign of only four months. He was succeeded by Quauhtemotzin — Guatemocin — who, as a brave ruler, proved in no wise inferior to him. After a few unsuccessful attacks, the Spaniards had to acknowledge the impossibility of taking the town by storm, but the systematic siege to which they had reluctantly resorted proved both tedious and difficult. Every inch of the ground, as

well as every house, was defended with the greatest courage by the natives, who were crowded together in overwhelming numbers in Tenochtitlan; and so long as the entrances to the town on the water side were not completely in the hands of the Spaniards, Cortes' ships were not in a position entirely to prevent provisions from reaching the besieged. In spite of this, the Spaniards advanced slowly but surely, and, after a siege lasting almost ten weeks, succeeded in confining the enemy to a small portion of the town by pulling down the sur-

rounding houses, so as to ensure the deployment, during the battle, of the artillery and cavalry which largely formed the Spanish strength. Quauhtemotzin then, realising the impossibility of holding the starved-out town, attempted to escape by sea, but fell into the hands of the Spaniards. The besieged then also gave up all resistance, and on August 13th, 1521, the heroic defenders quitted the ruins of Tenochtitlan. Immediately after this success, Cortes resumed the activity which had been interrupted by the appearance of Narvaez on the coast. Montezuma's record of taxes enabling him to form as correct an idea as possible of the extent and constitution of the kingdom, he organised the territory and



THE CHRISTIAN CROSS ON AN AZTEC ALTAR

In this reproduction of a beautiful piece of statuary, Cortes, the conqueror of Mexico, is represented placing the Christian Cross on an Aztec altar, supplanting in so doing the native image, greatly to the dismay and indignation of the Mexican chief, who has in vain endeavoured to prevent what to him is an act of sacrilege.

From the statue by Molto y Such



THE SPANIARDS IN MEXICO: BATTLE SCENE FROM AN OLD DRAWING

Of the many battles fought by the Spaniards in Mexico, perhaps the most desperate was that with the inhabitants of Michuacan, towards the middle of the sixteenth century, when the Spanish forces under Cortes were joined by the Tlazcalans, who brought their famous war-dogs to bear upon the struggle. This engagement was the outcome of Indian treachery, which is typified by the figure of a man hanging in the background of the picture. That the battle ended in a victory for the Spaniards and their allies is signified by the mutilated body of an Indian champion in the right-hand corner.

regulated the taxes on this basis. The news of a rich and highly civilised country which had at last been discovered on American soil, and was secured to the Spanish Crown by his energy, proved exceedingly useful to Cortes, for an impetus was thereby given to the desire for emigration such as had not existed since the second voyage of Columbus. The capital of Mexico, which, with his wonted energy, Cortes at once rebuilt, numbered, after a few years, several thousands of inhabitants, and from thence a network of smaller European settlements spread over the whole of Montezuma's territory.

During this period the return of the *Victoria*, the only ship out of Magalhaens' fleet to complete the voyage around the world by the southern points of America and Africa, had directed attention to the Spice Islands. These were pre-

sumably situated within the Spanish sphere of authority; and the question of finding a shorter route than the one discovered by Magalhaens arising, two ships were immediately built at Zacatula, and shortly after began a systematic and careful exploration of the Pacific coast of Mexico.

Cortes for a time indulged in the hope of discovering a passage through Central America. This desire, and the wish to ascertain the southern boundaries of the country conquered by him as quickly as possible—for an invasion from the colonies of Darien might with certainty be expected, in consequence of the impression which his conquests had created—led him to equip two fresh expeditions as soon as circumstances in the interior of the province allowed of such a step. One, under the command of Pedro de Alvarado, advanced from the southern

Pacific territories of Mexico into the province of the Maya tribes, who occupied the mountain districts to the north of the Isthmus, which is the Guatemala of today. Alvarado was able to take advantage of the same conditions which had proved of such assistance to Cortes in gaining the victory, and through the jealousies of the various chiefs he was able to incite one tribe against the other.

Though occasionally encountering an obstinate resistance, he was obliged to concede that the bravery of the natives equalled the courage shown at the defence of Tenochtitlan; but they were not able, either here or elsewhere, to hold their own permanently against the Spaniards, and the campaign proved rich not merely in glory but also in material results. The other expedition, which Cortes sent at the same time along the coasts of the Atlantic to the south, was less successful. The leader, Cristobal de Olid, from the beginning gave rise to the suspicion that he intended to serve Cortes in the same manner as the latter had served Velasquez. He had indeed, at Puerto de Caballos, after circumnavigating the peninsula of Yucatan, taken possession of the country in the name of Cortes, and founded a colony which he called Triunfo de la Cruz.

Then he evinced the desire of securing for himself a small territory between Castilla del Oro, now an organised province of Central America, and the Mexican territory belonging to Cortes. He began by attaching to himself all the restless and adventurous elements in both provinces, and with

their help he either got rid of or intimidated the conscientious ones. It so happened that several contingents which Cortes had sent after Cristobal de Olid disappeared and never reached their destination, so that the commander-in-chief only heard rumours of his proposed defection. Cortes, however, foresaw no serious danger. His efforts to gain from the king his recognition as governor had not been crowned with entire success; therefore, had Olid, in league with Velasquez, succeeded in establishing himself independently in the south, it would certainly have cost Cortes the greater part, if not the whole, of his governorship.

Cortes, therefore, with the quick determination peculiar to him, quitted Mexico in October, 1524, and sailed along the Atlantic coast as far as Usumacinta. From thence traversing Yucatan where the peninsula joins the mainland, he crossed Lake Isabel and reached Olid's colony on the coast. The object of his journey had been attained before his arrival: Olid had been removed, and the colony had returned to obedience. During his march, passing through considerable regions of unexplored country, Cortes had become acquainted with the towns and countries of the Maya tribes of the east, establishing his claims on this country in such a way that all danger of foreign intervention was removed. The subjection of the peninsula of Yucatan, the seat of the last tribes who still adhered to the ancient, genuine Maya traditions, was not, it is true, seriously attempted until some years later by

**Cortes in
Unexplored
Regions**



Richards

A PRESENT-DAY VIEW OF THE AQUEDUCT BUILT BY CORTES IN THE CITY OF MEXICO

THE SPANIARDS IN MEXICO

Francisco de Montejo, and it was carried through comparatively slowly and with varying success. After the peninsula had been explored on all sides, both by land and sea, its acquisition was but a question of time, as its principal secrets had been disclosed by Cortes. For a number of years, until new discoveries drew attention in other directions, the "flotas de Yucatan" sailed there from time to time from Seville, bringing back rich treasures. But while Cortes advanced into the jungle to punish the insubordination of his subjects, they boldly held up their heads in the capital. Cortes was looked upon as dead, and his enemies—the energetic, unscrupulous conquistador possessed an abundance of them in men who found that he had not been able to fulfil their exaggerated hopes—were so superior in force that they were soon able to annul the regency which he had instituted, and to seize the reins of government for themselves. This rival government, however, collapsed upon the approach to the town of the returning commander, who in the meantime had been constituted governor and commander-in-chief of the province of New Spain by Charles V. But the germs of discontent which compelled him in 1527 to go over to Spain in order to lay his case personally before the court date from these circumstances. In spite of endless lawsuits he succeeded in acquitting himself well before the Council of the Indies, but, like Columbus, he, too, was not reinstated in his former position. When he returned to Mexico in 1530 he was forced to tolerate a new governor placed immediately over himself, and this weighed heavily on the proud conqueror. During this period he gave a fresh impetus to discoveries in a north-westerly direction. He sent ships along the Pacific coast and also discovered the Bay of California. In the year 1535 he himself once more penetrated far up the coast of the Californian peninsula. Although he was not the discoverer of the desired north-west passage any more than he had previously been the discoverer of Central America, he furthered

The Proud Conqueror Superseded

a knowledge of the truth that North America was not connected with the continent of Asia, even in higher latitudes. Long before the middle of the century the Spaniards had also pushed on far into the interior of the regions to the north-west of Mexico. Nuño de Guzman had, in addition to the subjection of the northern districts of the Aztec kingdom, advanced, in 1530, into the subsequent New Galicia—the provinces Durango and Sinaloa of to-day—with an army composed of Spanish and Indian warriors. Rumours of towns rich in gold had enticed him to these districts. They received apparent confirmation when a few of the followers of Fernando de Soto, who had gone from Florida straight through the southern provinces of the United States as far as Texas and Mexico, told of colonies where the houses were many storeys high and where life was even as gay and as luxurious as in Mexico itself. They called the largest of these towns Eibola. It became the goal of an expedition which Juan Vasquez de Coronado undertook it, 1535 from Culiacan in a

Where Life was Gay and Luxurious



FERNANDO DE SOTO

A Spanish discoverer, he greatly distinguished himself in the Nicaragua expedition and in the conquest of Peru, being subsequently appointed governor of Cuba.

north-westerly direction. After he and his companions had, with many struggles and privations, wandered through the arid regions between the Great Colorado and the Rio Grande, they did, in fact, arrive at the towns of the Pueblo Indians, which had unmistakably given rise to the rumours, but they failed to discover the reported treasures in possession of the homely husbandmen of Zuñi, Walpi, and Moqui, even as they had failed to find Nuño de Guzman. The reputed City of Gold now received a new name.

Even after many centuries the phantom of the treasures of Quivira still lured the Spaniards into the desert prairie land of the Llano Estacado. The Spanish power, in reaching the Pueblo towns, had practically attained its northern boundary, beyond which it advanced only indirectly during the nineteenth century, when the opening of the Far West set in motion on all sides a great stream of immigrants for California.



PIZARRO DESCRIBING TO CHARLES V. OF SPAIN THE TEMPTING RICHES OF PERU
 Immediately after the discovery of America by Columbus, the golden land of the Indian tribes who inhabited Peru held a strange fascination for Spanish adventurers, of whom at once the most unscrupulous and the most brilliant was Francisco Pizarro, an erstwhile pig-tender of Estremadura. Returning to Spain after one voyage with a glowing account of the Inca kingdom, with its reputed wealth of gold and other precious minerals, he found no difficulty in persuading Charles V. to grant him the exploring rights for the conquest of the new province,

From the painting by Uiscano

THE
DISCOVERY
OF
AMERICA



AND
THE SPANISH
CONQUEST
V

THE SPANISH CONQUEST OF PERU PIZARRO'S BRUTAL METHODS WITH THE INCAS

NOT only had new life been infused into emigration by the achievements of Cortes, but they had also inspired the desire for fresh discoveries. The Council of the Indies had never previously been so occupied with requests for permission to make fresh attempts at colonisation as during the years subsequent to the conquest of Mexico. There was now no longer any need for the government officially to continue exploration in the new regions of the world; the enterprising spirit of its subjects competed for pre-eminence in the matter of discoveries.

Of course, all the adventures for which the Council of the Indies had granted concessions were not actually undertaken, while some, again, proved such absolute failures that the holders renounced their claims within a short time, and even colonies which, like Santa Marta, had subsisted for a number of years, had occasionally declined

The Spanish Explorations in South America

so rapidly that they required to be completely reconstituted. Even though vast tracts of land on the confines of the Spanish colonies remained for more than a century still unreclaimed—tracts over which the Spaniards were never in a position to exercise more than a formal claim—yet scarcely an unexplored region of larger dimensions was left in the southern half of the New World, with the exception of those lowlands to the south of the river Amazon, which to this day are still almost unknown. In isolated instances the explorers pushed far forward into regions which up to now had not been identified with certainty, because no white man who could give an account of his experiences has ever again advanced so far.

The Spaniards had presumably heard vague rumours from the Indians in Central America of the existence of rich and powerful states both in the north and also in the south, and when the expansion of the Central American province to the north was closed by the conquest of Mexico,

their attention was naturally directed towards the south. The voyages along the Pacific coast had so far resulted only in the knowledge of various races who were in an unusually low state of civilisation, and no doubt it was on that account that so long a time elapsed before the Spaniards guessed

Spaniards' Lust for Gold at the existence of the country of the Incas. Through a misunderstanding, the name of Peru was again assigned to it.

Biru was the name of a small kingdom on the bay of San Miguel, at the south-western end of the isthmus. Balboa had already touched there, and it had been the goal of an expedition which Pascual de Andagoya undertook in 1522. The direct result did not surpass what the expeditions into the regions of Darien had led men to expect. The natives, however, who had by that time become more intelligible, made it clearer than ever to the gold-seeking Spaniards that there existed great kingdoms in the south on the Pacific coast, where they would find the yellow ore in plenty. This news could apply only to the kingdom of the Incas.

The assertions of the Indians had made an indelible impression, especially on one of the followers of Andagoya. Francisco Pizarro was an adventurer of the ordinary type. He had tended the pigs at his home in Estremadura, but when still a youth he had, with Hojeda, crossed the ocean in 1508, and had also shared in all the dangers which preceded the founding of the Darien colony. After its annexation he was

Pizarro's Voyages of Discovery numbered among the constant participants in all voyages of discovery. In this way he had gained vast experience in all

kinds of difficult positions, and manifested throughout quiet but almost inflexible perseverance, which was highly appreciated by his superiors and comrades. While evolving the plan for the discovery of the golden land of the Indians, these same qualifications also proved of immense

service to him. As his means were insufficient for the equipment of an expedition, in spite of fifteen years' service in the colonies, he turned to the colonists for assistance. Diego del Almagro, a man of the same type as Pizarro, brought him a host of resolute comrades, but, like Pizarro, he did not possess the necessary

Pizarro's Gold-seeking Expedition

financial means. These, nevertheless, were also found. The vicar of the church of Panama, Fray Hernando de Luque, not only possessed a small fortune himself, which he was prepared to stake on the undertaking, but his relations with the governor, Pedrarias Davila, and with other notabilities of the colony, made it possible for him to smooth the way for the enterprise in every direction, so that Pizarro was able to make the first advance into the south in 1524.

The result of the expedition was by no means remunerative. Both Pizarro, who had sailed in advance, and Almagro, who followed him some months later, reconnoitred the coast from Panama about half-way up to the northern boundary of the kingdom of the Incas, and gained but little treasure as a reward for great hardships. Pizarro, however, again gave brilliant proofs of his imperturbable powers of endurance. Twice he sent his ship back to Panama, remaining behind on the totally strange coast with a little band of followers; and when he finally decided on a return, it was only with the object of attaining, through personal influence, the equipment for his expedition which seemed indispensable to him for such distances.

The conquest of Peru now became the object of a financial speculation for which a thoroughly business-like agreement was drawn up. Luque and his sureties found the money, while Pizarro and Almagro staked their lives, and the division of the proceeds was regulated accordingly. Not many months after his

Spanish Adventurers in a Plight

return Pizarro was able once more to put to sea, this time accompanied by Almagro, in order again to resume the exploration of the coast on the southern spot which had been previously reached. This time, as a result of the better equipment and the more favourable time of year, more rapid progress was made; but, in spite of all, their provisions ran short before they reached the more densely populated regions. Once again reinforcements and

provisions had to be procured from Panama, and even thus the expedition threatened to become completely frustrated. Upon hearing the accounts of the disappointed men who returned, the governor decided that a continuation of the undertaking was only a useless waste of money and lives; he therefore sent to Pizarro and his followers on the Isla del Gallo and ordered their return. Pizarro remained immovable, and for seven months held out on the island with only twelve companions, until his partners were in a position to send him a ship and provisions.

With these he energetically resumed his voyage to the south and finally reached the Inca kingdom. He got on friendly terms with the natives of Tumbez on the Gulf of Guayaquil, and was at length able, with his own eyes and ears, to investigate the truth of the rumours circulated by the Indians. The greatness of his discovery actually far exceeded all his hopes and necessitated another return home. This was no task which could be accomplished with the funds provided by his partners, and on this account a basis with extensive

Pizarro at the Court of Spain

capital had to be established. On his return with the news of his discoveries in Panama he had no difficulty in convincing his partners of the necessity for first acquiring in Spain the exploring rights for the conquest of the province, and it became evident to them that he would be the most suitable person to lay this proposition before the Council of the Indies. In the spring of 1528 he travelled over to Seville and presented himself at court. When he returned to Panama, two years later, he carried with him the nominations for himself as "adelantado," for Almagro as commandant, and for Luque the reversion of the first bishopric.

Almagro, to be sure, felt that he had been slighted by the unequal division of the honours between him and his partners, but for the moment he was appeased. Apparently on the best of terms, they led a band of about 200 Spaniards towards the south. Even before they reached Tumbez the expedition was strengthened by more than one reinforcement. Their reception by the natives there was again peaceful, the more so as Pizarro delivered them from their hostile neighbours, the inhabitants of the island of Puno, whom, incited thereto by the people of Tumbez, he defeated completely. He there also

THE SPANISH CONQUEST OF PERU

heard of the war between the brothers Huascar and Atahualpa, which had just terminated, and of the seeds of discontent which the latter had sown. This information made Pizarro hasten to the scene before the favourable opportunity for intervention had passed. When he had founded a colony—San Miguel—for the adjustment of the trade, he started for the interior, and made straight for the spot where, according to the accounts of the natives, he might expect to find the Inca Atahualpa.

To advance to meet a host of ostensibly 40,000 men, in quite an unknown country, with 168 Spaniards without any confederates, was most foolhardy. The smallness of the number may have been the means of his success, as the Inca-Peruvians did not consider it necessary to place hindrances in his way or to arm themselves for resistance. Atahualpa, on the contrary, seemed almost anxious to make the acquaintance of the Spaniards, to whom he repeatedly sent messengers with presents and an invitation to appear before the Inca. Unmolested, Pizarro climbed up into the mountains from the plains of the coast, and at last reached the town of Cajamarca, near which the army of the Inca was encamped. The town was deserted—a circumstance which was not unwelcome to the Spaniards, enabling them, at any rate, to prepare unnoticed for defence, and also to make arrangements for their attacks. On the day after their arrival Pizarro sent to the camp a small division, composed entirely of horsemen under Hernando de Soto, and through them invited the Inca to honour the Spaniards with a visit. He had arrived at the conviction that it would be foolish to measure the strength of his own

The Wily Tactics of Pizarro

forces with those of the Inca in open battle. All his hopes were set on getting possession of the Inca's person, and then, as Cortes had done with great success in Mexico, under cover of his authority, to get the country into his power. Atahualpa evinced unmistakable interest in the appearance

of the horsemen, a novel sight for him, though he took scant notice of the message which Soto brought him ostensibly in the name of the Emperor Charles. He promised, however, to appear in Cajamarca on the following day, in order to make the acquaintance of the other Spaniards and of their commander-in-chief.

Atahualpa Among the Spaniards

It became evident to Pizarro that the following day would decide the issue of his undertaking, and his suggestion that they should at once fall upon the Peruvians and take Atahualpa a prisoner at the earliest opportunity was received with universal satisfaction. All the preparations for the success of the daring plan were carefully made. With growing impatience

the Spaniards watched the greater part of the next day pass without a single person coming within reasonable distance from the camp of the Incas, and they began to fear that, in spite of all the precautions which had been taken, their plan had been discovered. Late in the afternoon, however, a procession began to move towards Cajamarca, and in a moment every Spaniard was at his post. The town seemed deserted when the Inca entered; he was able to proceed as far as the market-place without seeing a soul, and the market, too, was at first empty. When the Inca, carried in an



FRANCISCO PIZARRO

An adventurer of the ordinary type, he conquered Peru on behalf of Spain, employing the most brutal and cruel methods in his campaigns against the Incas.

uncovered litter, halted, he was met by a monk, Fray Pedro de Valverde, accompanied by two natives whom Pizarro had enrolled among his followers on his first voyages and had taken to Spain, where they were trained to be interpreters. The monk made the customary speech to the Inca which by command of Charles V. had to be interpreted to the natives each time before force might be used towards them.

Beginning with the creation of the world, he told of the vicariate of the Pope over the globe, and deduced from the papal deed the claim of the Spanish rulers to the obedience of his Indian subjects. Atahualpa listened to the address without change of countenance, and, as Valverde repeatedly referred to

the Bible, which he carried open in his hand, the Inca desired to see the book. Not perceiving anything extraordinary in it, he threw it contemptuously on the ground, after turning over its leaves. It needed only the exclamation of indignation which this conduct evoked from the cleric to give the signal for the attack to

The Inca Taken Prisoner the Spaniards, who had been following the proceedings with the keenest interest. The two small field culverins, which had been placed in such a position that they swept the market-place, were discharged; the horsemen, standing near their saddled steeds at the back of the adjacent houses, mounted and dashed forward toward the market-place and the litter of the Inca, knocking down everything which happened to come in their way.

The musketeers and unmounted warriors at the same time endeavoured to prevent the followers of the Inca, numbering several thousand men, from going to the assistance of the combatants in the market-place. The daring plan was carried out most satisfactorily during the confusion which followed upon the sudden and unexpected attack. As the bearers were thrown down, the Inca fell from the litter and was secured by the Spaniards without injury. His followers undoubtedly fought with great bravery in order to liberate him, but the large expanse of ground which had been most cunningly chosen gave them no opportunity. After a short but cruel and ferocious battle the Peruvians, of whom about 2,000 are said to have been killed, were forced to retire and leave the Inca to his fate.

By the success of this daring feat the conquest of the kingdom of the Inca had practically been accomplished. The tribe dispersed and left the country open to the Spaniards, who, secure under the authority of the Inca, obtained the realisation of all their desires. Atahualpa at

Treasures for the Spaniards once recognised that force could avail nothing. He was treated with every consideration, being waited on by his wives and household, but he was not permitted to leave Cajamarca, where he was lodged in one of the strongest buildings and carefully watched. He hoped to gain his liberation by means of negotiation. When he perceived with what greed the Spaniards fawned for gold and treasures, he offered to fill the room which he inhabited, as

high as a man could reach, with gold and silver, on condition that he might be permitted to return to the throne of his ancestors. The Spaniards took care not to reject so good an offer, and watched with delight and astonishment while, at the order of the Inca, the treasures actually poured into Cajamarca from all directions. The doubts which they had at first felt as to the possibility of such a promise ever being fulfilled vanished.

But this did not prevent them from continuing the attempt to conquer the country, which was their goal, by other means. Pizarro had, in the meantime, collected further information about the dispute concerning the succession, and found that Huascar, the rightful Inca, still lived. He was too valuable a tool not to be secured, but Atahualpa did not remain in ignorance of the design. In order to remove his dangerous rival he gave the secret order that Huascar should be immediately executed. He little guessed that in so doing he had sealed his own fate. As the collection of the ransom did not proceed fast enough to please either the

Unopposed March of the Spaniards Inca or the Spaniards, it was decided to send a contingent to the sanctuary at Pachacamac. Pizarro placed his brother Fernando at the head of this troop, which was the first to penetrate farther into the Inca kingdom. The real object of the expedition was not attained.

Fernando Pizarro found the temple practically robbed of its treasures, and could do nothing but destroy the mud idol and replace it by the cross. On his return he again gave glowing accounts of the high state of civilisation and of the excellent administration of the kingdom. His reports were surpassed by those of two other Spaniards who had also pushed on as far as Cuzco with a safe-conduct from the Inca on account of the ransom. Nowhere was the slightest sign of resistance shown, and now, as before, gold flowed into the Inca's room. The sight of such treasures, however, proved too much for the avaricious eyes of the adventurous troop, and even before the ransom was completed a division was decided on.

The amount of gold and silver which had accumulated may be computed from the fact that the royalty for the Spanish king was worth a sum approaching \$2,000. From that time Atahualpa, who now claimed his liberty, was regarded only



CONQUEST AND EXTERMINATION: PIZARRO SEIZING THE INCA OF PERU

The barbarous method of colonisation, by which the inhabitants of a country were driven out or murdered by new conquerors, was employed in the great days of Spain's colonising. The settling of a new land began with wholesale slaughter. The picture, by Millais, shows Pizarro seizing the Inca of Peru and putting the natives to the sword.

as an encumbrance. The strength of the Spaniards had been almost doubled by the addition of considerable reinforcements brought by Almagro. Upon the advice of several of his followers Pizarro put Atahualpa on his trial as a usurper and fratricide, and ordered his execution ;

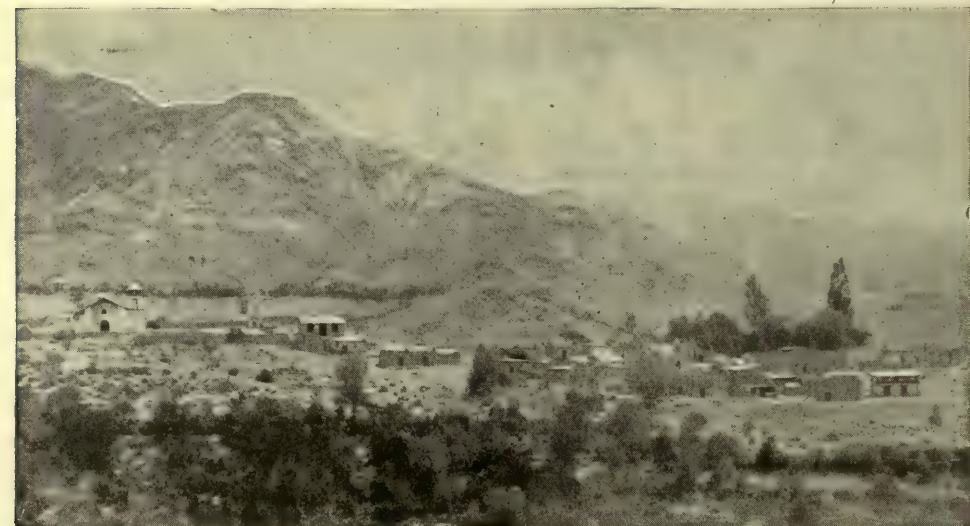
he then nominated another member of the royal family as Inca, in order to secure the continued obedience of the natives. This object was, however, only partially attained. After the death of both Inca kings the bond of obedience was severed in this realm also. The natives withdrew more and more from the Spaniards, and at times even showed open hostility.

Pizarro then decided upon leaving Cajamarca. He led the main force towards the south in order to occupy the capital, Cuzco, and at the same time sent a smaller troop, under the command of Benalcazar, in a northerly direction to take possession of Atahualpa's capital and with it the kingdom of Quito. This was a very important step, as the report of the treasures of Peru had already aroused the envy of other Spaniards. Pedro de Alvarado, Cortes's confederate in the conquest of Mexico, and now governor of Guatemala, arrived in Peru some weeks later, accompanied by a host of adventurers, with the avowed intention of securing for himself in Quito a wealthier dominion than the one he had found in the north. The spectacle presented by Cortes and Narvaez in Mexico was almost

repeated here, though Alvarado showed less consideration. He entered into negotiations with Pizarro and Almagro, and finally transferred the whole equipment to them in consideration of an indemnity ; which agreement was accepted by his confederates, for the kingdom of the Inca was large and rich enough to hold out the prospect of further spoils for them also.

Up till then the Spaniards only once had to draw sword. Pizarro found, when pushing on to Cuzco, that the way was barred by a hostile force which only retreated after heavy fighting wherein the Spaniards suffered great losses. They were, however, again able to establish themselves without resistance and founded a Spanish colony in Cuzco, but Pizarro did not again constitute it the capital. Its position in the south-east of the realm and its distance from the coast precluded it from becoming a suitable spot for Spanish purposes. The arrival of Alvarado necessitated Pizarro's hasty return to the coast, and there the future seat of the provincial government was established—the modern

Lima, on the river Rimac, the Ciudad de los Reyes. The continual reinforcements which Pizarro's forces were continually receiving placed him in the enviable position to continue his discoveries in every possible direction, and soon to push beyond the borders of the old Inca kingdom. Almagro began a series of expeditions, soon after the colonisation of Cuzco, by advancing towards the south between the



THE RUINS OF THE FIRST SPANISH SETTLEMENT IN PERU

Edwards



THE FATE OF PIZARRO: ASSASSINATION OF THE CONQUEROR OF PERU

A succession of civil wars broke out in the Peruvian province between the Pizarrists and Almagrists, and during these Almagro was defeated and executed in 1538. Three years later the Almagrists, led by Almagro's son, had their revenge, a party of them falling upon Francisco Pizarro at Lima and assassinating him when he offered resistance.

From the painting by J. Laguna, photo Lacoste

two Cordilleras, through the present Bolivia. In doing so, he subjugated without difficulty the provinces round the lake of Titicaca, and then marched on over the mountains towards the south, enduring untold hardships, cold and hunger finally necessitating the risk of crossing the icy crest of the western Cordilleras in order to regain the less impracticable coast. He followed it beyond Coquimbo, in the region of Copiapo. On his return along the

Escape of the Inca King seashore, he had once more to undergo the severest privations in the desert of Atacama. In spite of all this the only gain from his expedition was the exploration of a great part of modern Chili, and the conviction that there were no treasures there which could be carried away with ease. Almagro returned just in time to rescue the Spaniards in Cuzco from a great danger. The Inca whom Pizarro had nominated in Cajamarca had soon after died, and Manco Inca had been made king in his place. The Spaniards, however, not meeting with resistance anywhere from the submissive natives, regarded him as **superfluous**. They paid so little attention

to him that he was easily able to escape from Cuzco into the north-eastern highlands, whence he planned a far-reaching conspiracy against the Spaniards. The weak garrison of Cuzco was surprised and fell into great straits, Fernando Pizarro's impetuous bravery alone saving them from complete destruction. While Almagro had been suffering useless privations in Chili, Spain had at least done him justice, for Charles V. made him governor of a province to the south of the Peruvian kingdom, which extended from a westerly and easterly direction about 750 miles to the south from the river Santiago (in modern Ecuador), to undefined southern latitudes, and Almagro was of the opinion that Cuzco belonged to this province. Fernando Pizarro refused to acknowledge this, and as deliberations led to no decision, Almagro in the end forcibly entered Cuzco and took Fernando Pizarro and his brother Gonzalo prisoners, while Francisco Pizarro made the attempt to liberate the brothers by force. When, however, the contingent which had been sent was also beaten by Almagro, he agreed to negotiations, which he immediately afterwards annulled,

as his attempts to liberate the brothers had been crowned with success. A succession of civil wars now began in the Peruvian province, which terminated only when all the leading members of the "conquista" had met a cruel end. First Fernando Pizarro engaged in battle with Almagro, and, beating him at Las Salinas,

Civil Wars in the Peruvian Province

had him executed in a most summary manner. When he returned to Spain, in order to lay his brother's case before the court, he was himself placed on his trial, and it was only because of his imprisonment for life that he survived his brothers. For the purpose of re-establishing justice and order, the Council of the Indies sent the licentiate Vaca de Castro, with supreme authority, to undertake the government of the province. His arrival closed another scene in the cruel drama. Almagro's faction, led by his son, had fallen upon Francisco Pizarro, and slain him when he offered resistance. The younger Almagro had no wish to be nominated to the governorship of the whole of Peru, but he laid claim to at least the southern province which had been assigned to his father.

Upon Vaca de Castro's refusal to grant this, he rose against him, and a large number of the conquistadors were only too ready to follow his leading. Fate, however, did not treat him kindly, for his party suffered a severe defeat in the battle of the Chupas, not far from Huamango, in 1542, and he was himself treacherously delivered over to his opponents and paid the penalty of his mutiny by death. Of the representatives of both conquerors only Pizarro's youngest brother, Gonzalo, still remained at liberty. Since

1540 he had been governor of Quito, and in the battles of Vaco de Castro against Almagro he had remained in faithful allegiance to the former. When, however, in 1544, Blasco Nuñez Vela was entrusted with the regency—chiefly in order to procure a happier lot for the natives, who, during the period of the fierce party wars, suffered most unjust oppression—he also could not resist temptation. To the rough Peruvian settlers, the protection of the natives seemed synonymous with the loss of their own rights.

Therefore, as Blasco Nuñez showed a great want of tact in the discharge of his commission, even the judges of the Audiencia, the Supreme Court of Lima, joined against the government in the insurrectionary movement of which, at his own instigation, Gonzalo Pizarro was elected leader. The more prudent among the colonists immediately returned to obedience when Blasco Nuñez was followed by Pedro de la Gasca, a priest who proved himself a discreet and energetic successor.

Gonzalo Pizarro became intoxicated by the consciousness of his power, and prolonged his resistance until, thanks to Gasca, his position became untenable and his case hopeless. During the battle which ensued most of his false friends deserted him, and he was taken prisoner, together with the ringleaders of his faction, and was put to death. Gasca, who had reached Panama in 1544 without troops (it was then still subject to Pizarro) in six years established quiet and orderly conditions in Peru for the first time, then asked for a successor, and retired to a monk's cell, from which he had been summoned by the command of Charles V.

Gasca Goes Back to His Monk's Cell



INCA WARRIORS: A REPRODUCTION FROM AN ANCIENT PERUVIAN PEDESTAL

THE DISCOVERY
OF
AMERICA



AND
THE SPANISH
CONQUEST
VI

LAST OF THE SPANISH CONQUESTS THE VAIN SEARCH FOR EL DORADO

FRANCISCO PIZARRO had also turned his attention to the southern province which had been discovered by Almagro. After the execution of his rival he considered it a constituent part of his own governorship, from which he sought to exclude all foreign intervention. For this purpose he despatched an officer, Pedro de Valdivia, his faithful ally, with a commission to usurp governmental power by the establishment of a Spanish colony.

Valdivia chose the same road as Almagro, but during a more favourable time of year, so that though he had to contend less with natural difficulties he came more into contact with the enmity of the natives, who were anything but friendly after their experiences with the Spaniards. The inhabitants of the newly founded town of Santiago led a wretched existence on that account during the first years, although reinforcements were frequently sent there

The Arauca's Fight for Independence

from Peru, especially after rich mines had been discovered and started in the valley of Quillota. Valdivia made use of the reinforcements more especially in order to continue the exploration of the country to the south. Commissioned by him, the Genoese, Pastene, sailed along the coast in the year 1544 until he reached the western outlets of the Straits of Magellan, which had been set as the southern boundary of the province.

When Pedro de la Gasca eventually took over the governorship of Peru he gave Valdivia his continued support, because, during the periods of unrest, the latter had rendered him valuable service. He was then able to continue his advance by land into the more southern regions of the province. The foundation of the town of Concepcion, on the borders of the district inhabited by the warlike Arauca Indians, followed in 1550. The battles with this tribe, which for quite ten years fought with wonderful bravery for its independence, have been celebrated in

song by more than one poet. But the heroic deeds which were performed on both sides during this period were quite out of proportion to the reward gained by the Spaniards' victory. This country, which Spain had won with such

Spanish Advance in America bloodshed, was certainly fruitful and possessed a good climate, yet the advantages which it offered did not by any means equal those of many other parts of the Spanish colonial kingdom, so that its colonisation and usefulness at first promised to make but very slow progress.

The Spaniards had, in addition to the conquest of Peru, advanced beyond the borders of the Inca kingdom in two other directions. There is no easier approach from the west coast of America to the vast lowlands of the east than the one to the south of Lake Titicaca, where the eastern Cordilleras extend into a series of moderately high mountain ranges which together surround and break into the highlands of modern Bolivia. Reference has been made in a previous chapter to the great part which this country played as the cradle of the races of primitive times.

By this road also the Incas seem to have carried their conquests beyond the sources of those rivers which flow, some through the Madeira to the Amazon, and some through the Pilcomayo to the La Plata. Almagro came into touch with those regions in 1535, during his expedition to Chili; but their exploration was systematically undertaken a few years afterwards, when Blasco Nuñez

Undiscovered Treasures of Potosi Vela, during his short period of office, entrusted the governorship of the provinces of Charcas and Tucuman to Captain Francisco de Rojas. The first explorers passed the immense treasures of Potosi, not suspecting their existence, and pushed on far into the lowlands in a southeasterly direction, through the provinces of Jujuy, Calchaqui, and Catamarca,

fighting not only with the natives, but frequently quarrelling also among themselves, until at the river Tercero they came upon traces of the Spaniards who had advanced thus far from the east. This completed the transit of the continent.

After the Portuguese had, in 1514, discovered the mouth of La Plata, and

The First Explorer of the Paraguay

extended their exploration to the south far beyond it, without, however, attempting to found a settlement there, the Spaniards hastened to secure, by actual usurpation, their claims to these districts in the face of the adjoining kingdom. Diego de Solis was the first to explore a tract of the Paraguay in 1515, but after he had been killed in battle with the natives his followers returned to Spain. Then Sebastian Cabot and Diego Garcia, one after the other, quickly appeared on the river and carried on a lucrative trade with the natives, in consequence of which it received the name of Rio de la Plata—Silver River—but they also were not able to found a settlement. Owing to the reports which they brought back, Pedro de Mendoza undertook the colonisation of these regions in 1534. His fleet of fourteen ships is said to have had no less than 2,000 men on board, who became the progenitors of the Spanish population of the Argentine provinces.

After Mendoza had founded the first colony in Buenos Ayres, and had for months unsuccessfully endeavoured to secure the conditions essential to its continuance, he was discouraged and gave up the attempt. The men, however, whom he had left to carry on the undertaking, understood what was needed in order to vitalise the colony. Ayolas, the first of his deputies, resolutely forsook the low ground down stream, and founded the town of Asuncion, more than 100 miles higher up, at the confluence of the Pilcomayo and the Paraguay, and it became the centre of the gradually developed

Asuncion the Centre of Development

province. He himself lost his life in the endeavour to extend his explorations farther to the west; but his worthy successor, Domingo de Irala, again took up his plans, and Francisco de Rojas' comrades found traces of his journeys near the Tercero. On a subsequent expedition he advanced from the Upper Paraguay, through the territory of the Chiquitos, as far as the regions which had been colonised from Peru; and though he had again

to return thence in obedience to an order from Gasca, the establishment of Santa Cruz de la Sierra as an intermediate station for trade communication between the Atlantic Ocean and Peru is the direct result of his achievements.

Only one other incident in the earlier history of the colony of La Plata is of importance in connection with the exploration of the South American continent, and this was the arrival there of Alvar Nuñez Cabeza de Vaca, in 1540, to take up the governorship of the province in succession to Pedro de Mendoza. It seemed to him to be an unnecessarily circuitous route to sail first to the south as far as the mouth of the river La Plata, and then again up the river; so he landed with most of his 400 followers opposite the island Santa Caterina, and pushed on from there in a westerly direction through the wooded lowlands as far as Asuncion. It was only due to specially favourable circumstances that the march was accomplished at all, for both he and his followers had to pass through untold struggles and privations, and had, except for the opening

Relations of Spaniards with the Natives

up of the country, achieved no results. Some years later, however, when the colonists compelled him to resign his office in favour of Irala and return to Spain, he involuntarily discovered the easier approach by way of Buenos Ayres.

The colony of Asuncion—or Paraguay, as it is more familiarly called—occupied a special position among all the Spanish provinces, because there the Spaniards' relation to the natives developed most unusually. The Spaniards, from the beginning, had been accorded a friendly reception by the Guaranis about Asuncion, and as these terms continued in the future the consequence was that there, more than elsewhere, they married the daughters of the natives. The colonists everywhere made the Indian girls their concubines, especially before the influx of European women had increased. Actual marriages, also, often took place between the various races, more especially with the wives and daughters of the caciques, and resulted in an increase in the number of half-castes. In Paraguay the difficulty the Spaniards had in communicating with their native country, together with exceptionally friendly relations with the natives, combined to produce conditions especially favourable to the crossing of races. An



SOUTH AMERICA IN THE 16TH CENTURY: MAP OF THE SPANISH CONQUESTS AND COLONIES
 The conquest of Peru by the Spaniards about the year 1528 marks a new era in the history of South America. Previous to that time the country had been practically immune from invasion by Europeans, and, although large tracts still remained unexplored, it possessed a not inconsiderable population of Indians. The above map shows the Spanish conquests and colonies, and the direction of the routes of exploration in the first half of the sixteenth century.

endeavour has been made, even to quite recent times, to trace the results of these conditions in the peculiar characteristics of the inhabitants of the province and subsequent republic of Paraguay.

Just as the La Plata and the Paraguay had in the south suggested to the Spaniards the way from the coast to Peru, so, in like manner, another of the great rivers led them, almost against their will, farther to the north from Peru to the sea. During the few years of peace which succeeded the downfall of Francisco Pizarro, his younger brother, Gonzalo, to whom had fallen the governorship of Quito in the place of Benalcazar, undertook an expedition.

The rumours of a wealthy kingdom in the depths of the continent decided its destination, and gave rise to a whole series of adventurous expeditions far into the interior, part of which has not even to this day again been thoroughly explored. If the crest of the Cordilleras through one of the passes from Quito is crossed in an easterly direction, it is quite evident that one must come upon one or other of the rivers which flow to the Rio Napo, and then with it to the Amazon. Later on, in the time when the missions instituted by various clerical orders in the regions of the Upper Amazon called forth a noble spirit of emulation for the conversion and domiciliation of the natives, the road to Quito over the Embarcadero de Napo became a much-frequented highway.

Almost a hundred years previously, when Gonzalo Pizarro led the first Spaniards by this road, they naturally, also, met with only the ordinary fate of all explorers—weariness, hunger, and sickness; so that Gonzalo, in order to facilitate the departure of his band, decided on placing the sick and weak, with the baggage, on rafts, and, with the stronger, to follow along the banks of the river. Often, when the provisioning became more and more

difficult, he sent the vessels far in advance, so that they might send or bring back food for those following by land. In doing this, however, the track was once lost just where the raft had been carried on especially far ahead, before known regions had been reached, and Gonzalo and his followers were obliged to turn back without being able to communicate with the others. Gonzalo had appointed Francisco de Orellana pilot of the raft. When the latter

realised that he had been abandoned, and saw the impossibility of taking his raft back against the current, he formed the daring resolve to drift along with it, knowing that it would finally bring him to the sea somewhere or other.

With only fifty companions on rafts which they had had to construct themselves, he drifted down the Napo into the Amazon, and then not only on to the ocean, but also some distance along the coast to the north, until, after a water journey of seven months, he reached the first European settlement on the island of Cubagua. In spite of many battles he lost only a few of his followers, and not many other conquistadors have had to endure greater sufferings than they endured, or had to contend with such dangers as they overcame.

This same expedition from Peru was again undertaken in the sixteenth century. In the year 1559 the Marquess of Cañete, then vice-regent of Peru, after hearing the accounts of an Indian who had come from Brazil to Peru, out of the Marañon and Huallaga, and was supposed to have discovered inhabited and wealthy towns

on the way, organised a voyage of exploration under the leadership of Pedro de Orsua. This expedition gave him an opportunity of getting rid of numerous unruly spirits who, since the various risings, had threatened the security of the province. These malcontents, however, gave quite an unexpected turn to the undertaking.

As soon as they had advanced far enough into the unknown district to be secure from pursuit, they murdered Orsua and completed the voyage up the river under the leadership of Lope de Aguirre, whom they had themselves chosen. After this they turned to Venezuela, and, having tyrannised over the province for months, they were at length overpowered in a battle near Barquisimeto, and the greater part of them were slain. The Amazon first became a permanent public road after the Portuguese had, in 1641, advanced with a great expedition from Para as far as Quito. This was the beginning of the methodical exploration of the mighty river system in detail, which came to an end when the Indians became extinct and the missionary activity on their behalf had consequently terminated.

The north-eastern portion of South America had at length become not quite an unknown region. Although Columbus

LAST OF THE SPANISH CONQUESTS

had there first come in touch with the American continent, and almost the oldest attempts at colonisation on the continent itself had also been made on the northern coast, it had for a considerable time remained comparatively neglected, because it held out no prospect of unusual wealth and the natives were more warlike there than elsewhere. It was the tribes of the Caribs belonging to this coast who had greeted the first Spaniards with poisoned arrows, and then vanished into the dense forests of the interior, in order to conquer by passive resistance the opponent whom they were not prepared to meet in open battle. Their name was so terrible to the Spaniards that it became the typical designation of all warlike and hostile races, and in its altered form, "cannibals," has become synonymous all the world over with "man-eater."

A considerable number of attempts at colonisation in the territory between the mouths of the Orinoco and of the River Magdalena were entirely frustrated before the Spaniards succeeded in gaining a footing in the region of the coast. However, this

The Hunting-ground for Slaves

territory only played an important part in Spanish colonial affairs when, owing to the rapid decline of the population on the islands of the Antilles, it became, on a large scale, the hunting-ground for slaves, while the island of Cuba, on the coast, served as the principal market-place for the spoil. Not until the first twenty years of the sixteenth century did Rodrigo de Bastidas succeed in founding a settlement in Santa Marta which promised to result in a permanent usurpation of the country. But it is possible that upon his violent death it, too, might again have been lost had it not received support from the neighbouring province, which the first Spaniards had already named Venezuela—Little Venice—after its native lake-dwellings on Lake Maracaibo.

The great German merchants had taken part in almost the first voyages of exploration to the West Indies as well as to the East Indies, and the accession of Charles V. in Spain enabled them to secure for themselves an important and permanent share in colonial trade. Besides these mercantile agents, numbers of adventurous young Germans had also gone there, many of them passing through almost all the phases of discovery of the Conquista. It is small wonder, therefore, that two Germans once

sued for and gained a concession for colonial discoveries. The Ehingers were closely connected with the house of Wels, whom many members of the family had served. When, therefore, they received from Charles V. the right to colonise the interior from Cape Maracapaná as far as the extreme end of the Guajiro Peninsula,

Pioneer Germans in Venezuela

from one ocean to the other, they counted with certainty on the help of the Welses, and some years later they transferred their prerogative to them. The Germans did only the pioneer work in colonising Venezuela, and helped forward the development of this province by the Spaniards.

This establishment of a colony was of peculiar importance in connection with the opening up of the unknown interior of South America, as it, in the first place, prevented the complete destruction of the colony founded by Bastidas in Santa Marta, and thereby formed the basis of the successful expedition of Gonzalo Jimenez de Quesada up the River Magdalena, besides becoming itself the starting-point of a succession of voyages of discovery. Almost simultaneously with Quesada and Benalcazar, Federmann led an expedition on to the plateau of Bogota, while George Hohermuth and Philip von Hutten started along the eastern foot of the Andes; and, although they did not, as has often been asserted, advance as far as the River Amazon, they were the first Europeans who came upon its mighty northern tributaries, the Caqueta, and probably also the Putumayo.

The rumour of the existence of another country rich in gold was still maintained after the conquest of Peru, and the accounts of the natives pointed to the northern regions beyond the Inca kingdom. Ambrosius Ehinger—whom the Spaniards called Dalfinger—had already explored the valley of Upare and along the Magdalena on the strength of these rumours, and

Vain Searches for the Land of Gold

had almost reached the boundary of the Chibcha kingdom when he decided to return. His successors, starting from the eastern Llanos, sought in vain for the entrance to the land of gold. George Hohermuth reached the entrance to the territory of the Chibchas while he was resting in San Juan de los Llanos, which region carried on a continuous trade with the Chibchas. Nicolas Federmann was the first to discover the pass from Llanos across

the Cordilleras, but on setting foot in the country of the Bacata he found the kingdom had been overthrown and was in the possession of the Spanish victors.

The fortunate conqueror of this province, which, under the name of Nuevo Reino de Granada, became the pearl in the crown of Spanish colonial possessions, was Gonzalo Jimenez de Quesada. He had come to Santa

The Pearl of Spain's Possessions

Marta in the year 1536 with the governor, Pedro Fernandez de Lugo, and was by him immediately afterwards deputed, with several hundred followers and three small vessels, to explore the River Magdalena up stream, and to advance upon the powerful ruler who, according to the stories of the natives, dwelt there. Near the river itself Quesada only met with the same fortunes as his predecessors, who, after many hardships, had discovered single Indian villages which were, no doubt, occasionally rich in spoils. The winter floods at length compelled him to leave the valley and ascend to the mountains. After he had with much toil advanced through the Sierra de Oppon, he came almost by chance upon the country of the Chibchas, in the neighbourhood of the subsequent Velez, for since he had quitted the river he could find no intelligible guide.

The resistance which the Spaniards met with from the rulers of the states and provinces of the Chibchas, who were divided among themselves by all kinds of rivalries, did not prove serious, and during three years Quesada gained almost fabulous treasures with comparatively small loss. He had just organised the newly acquired province and was on the eve of departure, when, within a few weeks of each other, Nicolas Federmann from the east, and Sebastian de Benalcazar from the south, appeared upon the scene. How the former arrived there has already been referred to. Benalcazar had, as is well

A Trio of Unsuccessful Spaniards

known, at first taken possession of the kingdom of Quito on behalf of Pizarro, and later on he, too, was induced, by precisely the same rumours which had guided the other two conquistadors, to undertake a voyage on his own account.

None of the three attained the object which they had desired—the regency of the rich province of Chibcha. Federmann ended in prison, a fate he well merited owing to the perfidy which he had shown on all

sides. Benalcazar had to be satisfied with the governorship of Popayan, to which was added the territory to the west of the Magdalena. Quesada did not reap the fruit of his conquests either, for he had to relinquish the governorship of Santa Marta and New Granada in favour of the unworthy son of Lugo, who in the meanwhile had died. After many years spent in legal proceedings he returned to the scene of his early conquests with the title of marshal, and died there, at a great age, after many adventures. Although with the conquest of the Chibcha kingdom the land had come into the possession of the Spaniards, in whose Institutions the legend of "El Dorado," the Golden Man, originated, yet the voyages in search of El Dorado were never pursued with greater zeal than during the next following decades.

Philip von Hutten, Hernan Perez de Quesada, brother of the conqueror of Chibcha, and finally the latter himself, sought for the Golden Man in Llanos des Caqueta and Putumayo; but after an enormous loss of life they came in contact with only a few half-civilised Indian races. In consequence of this the kingdom of El Dorado was transferred to a lake of Manoa,

The New Era of Colonial Administration

which was sought for between the lower reaches of the Orinoco and the Marañon. On this occasion Quesada's son-in-law undoubtedly for the first time threw light on the river system of the Orinoco from New Granada as far as its estuary—during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries the Guaviare was universally regarded as the river source of the Orinoco. In Trinidad he fell into the hands of Raleigh, who had recommenced his journey to the land of gold from the mouth of the Orinoco towards the Andes, and who, by his account of the expedition, has assisted more than his predecessors to spread abroad in Europe an idea of the geographical configuration of these regions. As a matter of fact, however, his whole expedition was only through a region which had long since been explored by the Spaniards.

The hope of finding El Dorado was gradually abandoned, for in the vast colonial territory owned by the Spaniards there was no space left for it. Love of exploration could no longer find an outlet for its activity, and it was succeeded by the serious and difficult task of organising the extremely vast regions which had at least become known, if only superficially.



□ SPAIN'S EMPIRE IN AMERICA □

ORGANISATION OF THE COLONIES

AND THE PROBLEM OF THE SLAVE TRADE

ACCORDING to the interpretation which Columbus believed he might put upon his prerogatives the whole of the vast colonial empire of Spain in America should have constituted a great empire over which he and his descendants should exercise almost unlimited authority as hereditary viceroy, governor, and admiral, united in one person; while the Crown in the meanwhile should possess in the right of suzerainty only a limited influence in the appointment of officials and a certain share of the revenue. Not only was this view held by the explorer, but his descendants also, in a lawsuit against the Crown, upheld the claim that the documentary concessions extended not only to islands and lands which had become known through the personal activity of Columbus, but also to all land which, during subsequent trans-Atlantic voyages of discovery undertaken by the First Admiral, should become the possession of the Spanish Crown.

The lawsuit terminated in a very simple manner—for the descendants of Columbus proved so utterly unfit for the duties imposed upon them by their claims that they finally themselves renounced their acknowledged documentary rights, because they had by vulgar debauchery incurred

**Failures
of the Great
Columbus**

punishment at the hand of justice, and had consequently fled. Apart from this, the point of law which was at issue proved by no means a simple one, for Columbus, on his part, had failed in more than one direction to fulfil the conditions of the Treaty of Santa Fé. He had neither gained the object which had formed the aim of the entire undertaking, nor had he been able, or even

shown a serious desire, to discharge the financial obligations which had been imposed upon him by the negotiations of 1492. Though he left the equipment of the expeditions to the government, he would nevertheless not give up all claim to the share in the profits which had been assigned to him only as compensation for his proportionate share in the expenditure. Within a very short time the question was transferred from the footing of a theoretical and legal debate to purely practical jurisdiction.

The prospect which lay in store for the colonies under the government of Columbus, between the second and third voyages of the explorer, had already become evident. The colonial method which had been adopted by the Portuguese on the coast of Guinea appeared to the First Admiral as the only feasible model—with this one exception, however, that he wished to be lessee of the general monopoly in the West Indies—that is to say, he desired to occupy the position which the Infante Henry had filled before his rights had reverted to the Crown. But he was entirely wanting in that keen spirit of enthusiasm which induced the infante, for many years, to make one sacrifice after another for the discovery of new countries and for the extension of Christendom; moreover, his one object was, in a mean-spirited way, not to miss any possible gain for himself.

For this reason he would not permit the settlers of San Domingo to spread themselves over the continent, and then, at their own risk, to undertake the search for precious ores and other trade commodities.

He feared that by such means a portion of the spoil would escape his control and diminish his share in the profits. For the same reason, also, when sufficiently large quantities of other staple trade commodities were not procurable, he did not hesitate to freight his ships with stolen natives, in order to sell them to the mother

Columbus's Weakness as a Ruler

country, after the example of the Portuguese. Not even the humane laws of the Spanish Government had power to prevent the rapid extinction of the native population in the Antilles, and it is obvious that a similar result would have been the immediate and inevitable consequence of Columbus's ideas on colonisation.

The first attempt at a slave trade with Spain had been checked by the categorical inhibition of Ferdinand and Isabella, and as Columbus was incapable of maintaining order in his only settlement, this afforded the government an opportunity for a breach with his entire colonial system. He requested the assistance of an officer of the Crown to re-establish order, and the subsequent investigation showed how impossible it would have been to entrust the government of the entire territory to the explorer, although he claimed it as his prerogative.

It is evident the government of Ferdinand and Isabella had originally planned a colonial undertaking according to the Portuguese model, and Columbus's expedition had given rise to the expectation that the discovery of flourishing and well-organised states would result in Spain's carrying on an extensive and successful trade with them. The real object of Columbus's expedition was not so much to acquire territory as to divert the costly and much sought after products of the Far East from the existing trade routes, and to establish the monopoly of the Spanish harbours. The extension of Christianity in these far-off realms was doubtless a second object. The Spaniard, who had

Spanish Wars to Extend Christianity

for centuries carried on a dreadful war upon the soil of his native land for the extension of Christianity among unbelievers, without doubt did not shrink from pursuing the same object by identical means in far-distant lands. If Columbus had really reached the harbours of Zaitun and Quinsay, with their treasures, their trade, and their organisation, most probably Spanish rule would have been established there in the same manner in which the

Portuguese ruled in the East Indies. In this way the first "Institution" established by the Spanish rulers for the benefit of colonial affairs—the "Casa de Contratacion," or the "House for Commerce," intended primarily for all commercial undertakings—was, in essentials, a copy of the "Casa da India" at Lisbon.

The Casa de Contratacion was, on its foundation in 1503, intended to watch over the interests of the Crown in colonial matters, more especially over commercial intercourse with the colonies. At that time the administrative powers were, according to the contracts of 1492, almost exclusively in the hands of Columbus, and the establishment of the Casa de Contratacion is sufficient evidence that the government in no way aimed at disputing these prerogatives, although Columbus had then already been suspended from the absolute power of exercising them and a governor had been nominated by the administration. But the foundation of settlements over the whole of Hispaniola and on the neighbouring islands, and the subdivision of the land among the colonists,

The Founding of New Settlements

as well as the advance into the interior of the island, portended a breach with Columbus's colonial system, for his plan had been to draw the mercantile profits of the land only from permanent ports on the coasts. The Crown's second decree for the Casa de Contratacion already showed an altered face, though mercantile interests still occupied the foreground.

The realisation of the profits which the government confidently anticipated from direct participation in the colonial trade is therein less prominently dealt with, and it now becomes more a question of the ordering and control of navigation and mercantile intercourse between the mother country and the colonies generally, whether carried on at the expense of the Crown or by the private individual. As the Casa de Contratacion developed into a court of administration, direct and judicial powers accrued to it. At least one lawyer is referred to in the regulations of 1511, besides the manager, treasurer, and book-keeper, as being in its employ.

The control of the correspondence, which was transferred to the Casa, formed the most important extension of power which was accorded during that year, and laid the foundation for its future significance. Not only all the letters which arrived for the

government from the colonies had to be opened and read, but all the government deeds intended for the colonies had also to be registered in the books of the institution, the officials even receiving orders to enter protests against such governmental instructions as seemed to them injudicious or risky and to suspend their execution. By reason of these powers the Casa de Contratacion became more and more a board of administration. The qualifications necessary for such a board were in later years also specially assigned to it; in less important matters the decision of the Casa was regarded as final, whereas upon greater and more important questions the Consejo de Indias could be referred to as a superior court.

In spite of the far-reaching prerogatives which had, according to agreement, been assigned to Columbus as viceroy, governor, and admiral of the Indies, colonial affairs, from the beginning, required extensive supervision and guidance on the part of the government. These increased considerably in importance from the moment when Columbus was suspended from the

Administering the Spanish Colonies full enjoyment of his authoritative powers, and when a Crown official was appointed in the interim to act for him provisionally. Ferdinand the Catholic, in order to secure the necessary uniformity and continuity of the colonial policy, had then already transferred the business connected with these powers to one distinct person. The Archbishop Fonseca was the authority on colonial affairs in the Privy Council; Secretary Gricio first acted as Under-Secretary, but after a short time he was succeeded by Lope de Conchillos, then already known for his unfortunate share in the quarrel about the succession between Ferdinand the Catholic and Philip the Handsome.

During the years 1509 to 1512 Don Diego Colon was reinstalled in the prerogatives of his father, but only to a limited extent. The division of the continually expanding colonial kingdom was then already in prospect, by which division only those countries which had been won for Spain by the direct invasion of the First Admiral were ceded to his descendants under the conditions of the treaty of Santa Fé. Even so these prerogatives were not granted without limitations, though the heirs were permitted to retain, as had been stipulated, the power to exercise

jurisdiction; in the first instance, throughout the entire range of the country assigned to them. On the other hand, in 1511, by the establishment of the "Audiencia" of San Domingo, a court of appeal was instituted more especially for the entire colonial department, where appeals could be made against the decisions

A Court of Appeal Established of the vice-regal courts of justice. The court was authorised to give judgment directly in the king's name, and it could eventually even summon the vice-regent himself before its bar. Owing to the fact that in all departments of national life government and the administration of justice had not as yet become detached from each other, each magistrate not only pronouncing judgment, but also executing it throughout the circuit of his authority, the Audiencia, in its capacity of a court of appeal for the legal settlement of all kinds of colonial affairs, became an important factor in colonial administration.

This importance grew in proportion as the government recognised the necessity of creating a counterpoise to the vast prerogatives of the vice-regent and governor, and of constituting an authority in touch with the governor, by which to control him, and act under the immediate direction of the government in the colonial territories which were not administered according to the treaty of Santa Fé. The government provided itself with another influence in the clergy. At first priests belonging to a religious order were almost exclusively sent to the islands to watch over religious interests and promote missionary work among the natives.

Almost immediately upon their advent conflicts arose between them and the temporal authorities. Fray Bernal Boil, who had accompanied Columbus on his second voyage as vicar-general, had, like the latter, soon to be recalled, because he became too argumentative in defending

Missionary Work Among the Natives his own version of the official duties against the officials. As soon as the government had convinced itself of the vast extent of the newly acquired possessions, it also became seriously concerned about the organisation of religious matters. At Ferdinand's suggestion Pope Alexander VI., in the year 1502, founded the first two bishoprics in San Domingo and La Vega on the island of Hispaniola. Almost immediately upon the definite settlement

the erection of new dioceses ensued, and soon an extensive network of archbishoprics, bishoprics, and parochial dioceses was spread over the whole colonial territory. The possibility arising, however, that the Church, now being a state within a state, might become dangerous to the power of the government, care was taken that the

Colonies the Property of the Spanish Crown

Crown should receive, from the Pope himself, the right of presentation to all benefices in the New World, in order to make the clergy of the colonies entirely dependent on the government, so that they even became a strong and influential support in all the vicissitudes of colonial events.

When, therefore, in the year 1516, Charles V. inherited from his grandfather the extensive colonial possessions with the Spanish Crown lands, he found the colonial government under safe guidance; indeed, one might almost say that the government had already begun to shape for itself a system for its colonial policy. As the discovery of America had been due exclusively to the initiative of Queen Isabella, the colonies, by political law, formed an integral and constituent part of the Crown of Castile. In the idea of a colony the sixteenth century conceived a country that was almost exclusively the private property of the Crown, at least so far as the possession of all privileges was concerned. The Spanish Government, therefore, after the abolition of the prerogatives belonging to the Colons, regarded the colonies as a domain whose revenue should accrue exclusively to it and be employed at its discretion. One consequence of this idea was that the government issued strict regulations for admission to the colonies.

In order seriously to control the execution of this decision, the entire intercourse between the mother country and the colonies was confined to the town of Seville, with the outer harbour of San Lucar de Barrameda. The disadvantages for trade,

The Mother Country and Her Colonies

which were the natural consequence of this monopoly by Seville, soon became evident. During the first years of

Charles V.'s reign, an especially vigorous agitation arose, no doubt as a consequence of the union of the Spanish kingdom with the German and Dutch territories under one and the same sceptre; and this was the means of procuring a considerable mitigation of the system, if not an advance in the participation also of these nations in

the trans-Atlantic trade. For a time this counter-current was successful, and it probably gave rise to a hope for still greater success hereafter; but the fiscal interests finally conquered, and Seville's monopoly of the colonial trade was rigorously maintained for a considerable time.

The fiscal and monopolist system, though characteristic, does not exclusively distinguish Spanish colonial policy, but it has, as in the case of the other states which have recognised it, left its special marks. But the most remarkable feature of the Spanish policy is its attitude towards the aborigines of the colonies. Columbus also considered the natives from the Portuguese point of view—that is to say, he regarded them either as a power with whom war could be waged and a treaty concluded; or as a commodity, like other colonial products, to be bought or sold, according to the requirements of commercial interests.

In any case, the natives were, from this point of view, either foreign persons or foreign things. As a result, Columbus, on his third voyage, endeavoured to cover his unsuccessful search for gold, spices and other

Spain's Humane Treatment of the Natives

costly wares by freighting the home-sailing vessel with a cargo of slaves, to be sold in Seville. But in this he met

with opposition from the Spanish Government, and more especially from Queen Isabella of Castile, as sovereign of the colonial kingdom. Immediately upon the news of the arrival of the living cargo, the officials in Seville received an order to stop the sale and to wait for a decision as to whether the slavery of the Indians was permissible according to the laws, human and divine.

It was followed by an order that the Indians should be taken back to their native country and set at liberty. This was a decision on the highest principles and of the widest scope, and it inaugurated a colonial policy such as had up to that time nowhere been attempted. It is probable that King Ferdinand, a politician of temperate views, who by no means regarded the whole colonial enterprise of his consort and co-regent with favour, would have decided differently had his own view of the matter served as a standard.

One is strengthened in this belief by the insistence with which Queen Isabella, in her will and its codicil, urges upon her husband the protection of the natives. This codicil is the next significant step in the legislation of the native question.

Although short and concise, its statements regarding the natives are so far of great importance, that the latter are therein recognised as subjects of equal birth, and their lives and property as under the protection of the Crown; and it is especially urged upon King Ferdinand, as executor, to repress and make compensation for any possible injustice which the natives might have to suffer.

The practical treatment of this question did not quite attain the high level of the theoretical decision. The declaration that the Indians were to enjoy the privileges of free subjects provoked opposition not only from the colonists, but also from the colonial officials and even from the clergy. It was impossible to form any conception of the revenues and produce of the colonies without having sufficient working material in the shape of native labour. Without a certain amount of compulsion, however, the native could not be induced, either to perform a sufficient amount of work to meet the requirements of the colonies, or to remain on a permanently friendly footing with the settler; yet this was indispensable if the civilising influence, and more especially the conversion of the natives to Christianity, which had from the beginning of the history of discoveries been so strongly emphasised, were to be carried on with any degree of success.

For this reason, both the temporal and spiritual authorities were unanimous in declaring that the granting of unlimited freedom to the natives would mean the ruin of the colonies, from both a spiritual and an economic point of view. The "Repartimientos" and "Encomiendas" were finally the result of the negotiations which were carried on with regard to these matters. The personal liberty of the natives was therein specially recognised, but in order to promote their education by European methods of civilisation and to secure their conversion to the Christian doctrine, they were assigned (repartir) to the charge of individual colonists and placed under their protection (encomendar). The latter thereby acquired a certain measure of patriarchal authority over their protégés which, according to the letter of the law, was most humanely designed, though in reality it created for the native almost everywhere a sure state of bondage; and this bondage, along with the simultaneous existence of Indian

slavery, often made the well-meaning designs of the law-makers entirely illusory for certain classes of the natives.

The law required certain moral guarantees from the holder of a repartimiento, and, on the other hand, quite definitely fixed the maximum of work to be done by the natives. The governors of the various

Difficulties in the Way of Government colonial districts, and, above all, of those territories which had been newly discovered, and had yet to be colonised, could not, however, under the pressure of the actual circumstances, evade the claims made upon them to reward, by the bestowal of the repartimiento, the services of the colonists who had first taken possession of the country. During the voyages of discovery and conquest it was not generally men of specially high morality who gained the highest honours for their comrades and country.

As, however, these expeditions made such great demands upon the participants, as to both daring and powers of endurance, naturally these characteristics preponderated among the recruits, who had nothing to lose and everything to gain. It is only natural that anyone who had so schooled himself as to face famine and death at the hand of the enemy for months should not be particularly disposed to treat with lenience and consideration the lives of beings whom he was easily induced to regard as creatures of an inferior order, creatures who could be brought to a peaceful state of subjection to the European yoke only after cruel and devastating wars.

Even with the best intentions of the favourably disposed governors, it was almost impossible to carry through a conscientious administration of the laws of the encomiendas. In the districts which were but sparsely populated by Europeans these rough settlers, who could hardly be dispensed with for the extension of the Spanish power, in numerous instances mutinied against the officials when

Fate of Law-respecting Governors the latter, in pursuance of the law, endeavoured to seize what the former looked on as the well-earned wage of their own superhuman exertions and privations. More than one governor was killed by his unruly followers, owing to his efforts to enforce respect for the law.

That great evils existed in the treatment of the natives in the extensive regions of the "Conquista" is certainly undeniable, although it is also incontestable that the

horrors of the Indian oppression have been extremely exaggerated by the agitators for the rights of humanity, among whom Bishop Bartolomé de las Casas occupies a prominent place. The Indians were undoubtedly often overburdened by toil, and thousands of them succumbed; yet, from the point of view of self-interest, it was of great importance to the colonists that those peoples under their protection should be preserved; unscrupulous exploitation cannot therefore be taken as the universal rule. The native population on the first discovered and colonised Antilles diminished with extraordinary rapidity; but, no doubt, this was brought about by many different causes.

Antilles Inhabited by Aruacs

In the first instance their number had been considerably overrated. Columbus made a point of doing this in order to enhance the value of his discovery, and the vehement agitation for the freedom of the Indians, which had already begun twenty years after the discovery, did still more to falsify ideas as to the number of the natives. If one remembers that the Antilles were only gradually populated by the Aruac race from the continent, and that this race of fishermen and hunters has nowhere else founded larger or more densely populated settlements; and if one also bears in mind that this race had for generations to suffer from a war of extermination with the dreaded native pirates, the Caribs, a dense population on the Antilles at the time of their discovery would be an impossible assumption.

The natives, however, soon realised that the newly arrived Spaniards would prove far more dangerous enemies than the Caribs had been. For this reason many of them fled from their villages into the jungle, where they suffered great loss among themselves and in war with the Christians. To these factors were further added those of unaccustomed kinds of labour, a change of food and manner of life, and finally maladies which had been imported by the Europeans and became epidemic among the natives, causing fearful devastation. The combination of all these influences must be held responsible for the depopulation of the Antilles.

This depopulation in one sense became of importance to the entire native question, as it led to a rupture with the general principle of the universal liberty of the

Indians. In 1505 Ferdinand the Catholic had already allowed the natives who by arms might oppose civilisation and Christianity to be attacked and enslaved. Possibly this permission may in the first instance have been aimed at the Caribbean races, but the more apparent the retrogression of the native population became, when the larger islands grew to be more densely populated by Europeans, the more was this licence employed as a cloak for the concealment of an extensive Indian slave trade.

Nothing was easier than by a defiant bearing to provoke the natives to take up arms so that without a violation of the law they could be dragged away as slaves. By these means the smaller Antilles, on which no Spanish settlements had been established, became within a short time entirely depopulated. But natives who had been exported to the larger islands as slaves, and there branded on the thighs with hot irons—a curious consequence of a law designed to be humanitarian—in order to prevent their exchange with peaceable Indians, were soon, also, no longer able to supply the ever-increasing demand for

labourers and to replenish their own reduced numbers. The slave-hunts were then extended to the continent and more especially to the northern coast of South America, whose inhabitants, of kindred origin with the island population, showed an unusually violent and lasting opposition to the first attempts at colonisation.

At this stage the doings of the slave-hunters assumed such proportions that they gave rise to the first movements of opposition, and these soon became of great power, as points of view were brought to bear upon the question which had nothing actually to do with the matter itself. The clergy of the colonies, as has already been mentioned, had at first not considered themselves in the least obliged to interfere on behalf of unlimited liberty for the Indians. Not only the secular priests, but also the Franciscans, who since the days of Columbus—when he also had belonged to the order as a lay brother—had played a prominent part in colonial administration, did not regard it as scandalous that the Indians were compelled by moderate pressure to join the Christians, or, in cases of resistance, were enslaved and treated as enemies. The Dominicans maintained a different attitude. The anti-

thesis between the two points of view also

aroused the opposition of the one order against the other, and thus, no doubt, contributed not a little to the aggravation of the question. The first who ventured to stigmatise from the pulpit, as a disgrace and outrage, the hitherto existing treatment of the natives was the Dominican brother Pedro de Cordoba, who thereby became distinguished far beyond his own diocese of San Domingo, where he preached.

Bartolomé de las Casas, who at that time was himself a keeper of slaves in Cuba, was won over to his views. His impetuous spirit took up the cause of the natives with such zeal that he became one of the best known among the champions of native liberty. Las Casas presented himself at the Spanish court, for the first time, shortly before the death of Ferdinand the Catholic. Though his vivid descriptions of the horrors practised in the treatment of the natives were met by the public with mixed feelings, he was the means of bringing about the decision that a special commission should be sent out to hold an inquiry into the actual circumstances. The native question had by that time become such an object

**Outcry
Against
Slavery**

of contention between the Franciscans and Dominicans that both orders were, on principle, excluded from election to the commission; but as the question was intended to be treated purely as a matter of conscience, and had for this reason been placed in the hands of the clergy, it was finally agreed that three Hieronymite monks should be chosen and sent to the islands with discretionary powers.

Las Casas vehemently impugned the impartiality of the three fathers because they refused to take his point of view, but he certainly wronged them. As a universal remedy he proposed the formation of self-governed and self-administered communities of Indians, to which only the clergy from among the Spaniards should be admitted as leaders in religious matters, and this was also attempted by the Hieronymites. Las Casas, a few years later, failed to colonise, on the same plan, a tract of the Paria coast, far removed from intercourse with the white man; and the Hieronymites, contending against still more unfavourable conditions, were equally unsuccessful in their attempt to colonise San Domingo. No doubt, however, the fact of their being sent greatly increased the opposition of the religious

orders among themselves, so that the government was forced at last to take the matter entirely out of the hands of the clergy and entrust it to a secular official.

The licentiate Rodrigo de Figueroa kept quite aloof from all theoretical points of view and regulated the native question solely from the standpoint of the hitherto

**Circumscribed
Area of the
Slave-hunters**

formulated laws on that point. These guaranteed a certain amount of liberty to the peaceable Indians, but permitted the enslavement of the hostile ones. In order to do this he first of all had to settle which Indians were to be regarded as hostile. As he was guided by entirely disinterested and well-intentioned ideas, he considerably circumscribed the territory remaining to the slave-hunters. The improvement in the treatment of the Indians as a whole, in the repartimientos and encomiendas, was the necessary consequence of the increased attention which was paid to the regulations bearing upon it.

An economic revolution was, in addition to this, carried out about the same time, at any rate in the island colonies. In spite of all efforts to the contrary on the part of the government, the Spanish settlements had for a long time been little more than permanent trade factories; all valuable objects which could be got from the natives by barter were collected, and with native help precious ores were dug and washed. But whenever the government sent seeds and plants across the ocean, their cultivation was not a success, because the natives did not understand their treatment, and the colonists considered it beneath them to have anything to do with the matter.

As therefore only a limited amount of the valuable products of the soil could be found, the exchange trade soon also collapsed, and though the new discoveries revived the carrying trade of San Domingo, it at the same time continuously withdrew

**Profits of
the
Sugar-cane**

the labourers from the island, thus diminishing its individual importance. The settlements suffered much in consequence until, by the cultivation of the sugar-cane, new and profitable livelihood was found for the colonists. Labourers were also required for this, and though the necessary work was not as irksome as gold-washing, it entailed a settled mode of life and continuous work for the colonists, whereas the other implied only an uncertain search for fortune.

The cultivation of sugar-cane had an important share in maintaining the vitality of the Spanish colonies up to the time when, through the great extension of these colonies, further opportunities for gaining a livelihood arose. Besides this, it was also of immense importance in their development, because it gave the impulse

**Negro Slaves
Imported to
the Colonies**

to the importation of negro slaves. These had, in isolated instances, been imported in the service of their Spanish masters from the time of the discovery of America. It was not long before it became evident in the colonies that the negroes became acclimatised exceedingly well there, and far surpassed the Indian natives in their capacity for work.

The government did not regard the importation of negroes with favour. It was feared that they, being but recently baptised, would be only half-hearted adherents of Christianity, and might have a bad influence upon the conversion of the Indians; so on that account the African negroes were entirely excluded from the colonies, and the immigration of black house slaves was also restricted as much as possible. The repeated petitions of the colonists for a plentiful supply of black labourers disclosed to the government the importance of this matter, so that it gradually came to be regarded in quite another light when Las Casas, from motives of philanthropy, urgently recommended the introduction of negro slaves in order to rescue the Indians from slavery. Although on this point the government still maintained the principle of inhibition for negro importation, it was now only on account of fiscal interests.

It is a fact that since 1516 about 4,000 negroes alone were almost annually transported by the agents of the slave monopoly from the coast of Guinea to the New World—exclusive of the considerable number who reached the colonies by

**The New
World's Trade
in Slaves**

special license, and in later times through smuggling. No doubt the negroes, and the half-castes who had already sprung from the union of whites with blacks and Indians, constituted in the middle of the sixteenth century a very important element in the agricultural population, and, as such, demanded special attention. These negroes had received, even less than the Indians, the merest semblance of a civilising education from the colonists,

and, as they were by nature far less submissive, they were more inclined to forsake their masters and revert to the manners and customs of their native life in the jungle. In 1550 the Spaniards had already to suppress dangerous insurrections of the negro population. These again recurred from time to time, until, after a successful insurrection in the year 1808, the negroes even succeeded in founding an independent state on the western half of the island of San Domingo in the Republic of Haiti.

The mixing of races was comparatively of less importance in Spanish America. In most of the colonies during the first years savage marriages with the native women were no doubt the rule, so long as European women did not go there or could not, under the circumstances, be imported; and wherever this continued, as was the case in Paraguay, it naturally resulted in a greater mixing of the races. In Mexico and Peru, as well as also in Bogota, the marriages of Spanish conquistadors with women of the native nobility were more often made from political con-

**Blending
of
the Races**

siderations, and the Spanish kings acknowledged this aristocracy by giving it an equal standing with the Spanish nobility. On the whole, however, the Spaniards in the colonies guarded the purity of their blood with no less care than in the mother country, and the creoles to this day regard it as the highest distinction to be the descendants of grandfathers and great-grandfathers of pure Spanish blood. Although the colonists of European descent, on the one hand, felt themselves the living antithesis of the native races, yet, owing to changed conditions of life, an altered climate, and different social circumstances, in course of time an indistinctly recognised but later on fully appreciated variation on the Spanish type was developed, the pure-bred Spaniards remaining in the colonies only temporarily as merchants, soldiers and officials, and never losing the feeling of being aliens.

On his accession Charles V. found the native question at its height, and for a time he let it run its course. The bitter paper war between Las Casas and Sepulveda about the admissibility of native slavery belongs to the first years of his reign, as well as the unsuccessful attempt at colonisation by the Dominican who had been elected patron of the Indians. The institution

THE ORGANISATION OF THE SPANISH COLONIES

of a special advocate for the natives also became general, and in every colony a spiritual chief pastor was then charged with the protection of the natives. The laws, also, for the treatment of the Indians were permanently altered and developed in a more decided recognition of their interests, until the Edict of Granada, of November 17th, 1526, included in six paragraphs all the regulations bearing upon their treatment.

The edict still distinguished between two classes of Indians, friendly and savage, and permitted the enslavement of the latter, while special officials were charged with the decision of each individual case. From that time this law became the

government, therefore, confined itself to freeing the system of the *encomiendas* more and more from all the imperfections which adhered to it, and to watching more and more carefully over its conscientious execution. The principle of promoting the social advancement of the Indians by a closer union with the Spaniards, and of granting to the conquistadors and their descendants, as a reward and recognition, the supervision of Indian wards, was adhered to. All the Indians were, however, by no means divided into *encomiendas*.

From the beginning the Crown had retained certain portions both of the land and of the population of every province



VICTORS AND VANQUISHED: A GROUP OF SPANIARDS AND PERUVIANS

From the painting by H. P. Briggs in the National Gallery

standard for the treatment of the natives, not only in all the colonies, but also in all the agreements concerning discoveries. It was nevertheless followed, in rather rapid succession, by further regulations in favour of the Indians. In 1530 Indian slavery was definitely abolished, after many disputes both for and against it.

In the same way the government made several attempts to abolish the *encomiendas*, but this regulation was never carried through, for two reasons: first, because it threatened to be prejudicial to the material advantage of the colonist; and, second, because it hindered the advancement of the civilisation of the Indian. The

and district, which were destined for the service of the Crown and not for the use of the individual colonist. Beyond this, the more the misuse of the *encomiendas* was attacked, the greater grew the difficulty of extending the system, so that finally only those Indians who were in the immediate neighbourhood of the places founded at the time of the conquest remained under the protection of the colonists. The vast territories which had not been so densely populated by Europeans remained, as before, the free land of the Indians, whose conversion and civilisation were almost exclusively transferred to the religious societies and to the missionaries sent out by them.



MISSIONARY ENTERPRISE IN BOLIVIA: A JESUIT SETTLEMENT AT SAN JOSE

The warlike Guarani for long resisted the religion and customs of their Spanish invaders, and towards the middle of the sixteenth century Jesuit missionaries were sent to Paraguay in aid of the first Christian preachers. So successful were their efforts that in a few years the entire control of the province, civil and religious, was handed over to them. They founded a number of villages, at each of which a settlement in charge of two priests was erected. The above picture shows such an edifice, with a portion of an Indian village.



THE JESUITS IN SOUTH AMERICA AND THE CIVILISING OF THE NATIVE RACES

THE merits of the Spanish clergy on Spanish territory can hardly be rated too highly. The mysticism of the Renaissance united with the enthusiasm for the natural conditions of human society which had arisen from Romanticism in casting upon the Spanish missionaries the reproach that they, with blind fanaticism, had annihilated the last remnants of sacred antiquity in the New World and had brought to the people of America only spiritual servitude instead of spiritual salvation.

It had been purely an act of necessity for the missionaries and clergy in the provinces, where they were confronted by a well-developed system of religion and an influential hierarchy, to interfere radically and energetically with the inhuman customs which they frequently found to exist among the natives; as, for example, in Mexico. It can certainly not be disputed that in so doing they had

The Vandalism of the Spanish Missionaries

occasionally destroyed objects of heathen adoration, which destruction has been deplored by modern ethnographical science. On the other hand, it was just these clergy, and in many provinces only they, who considered it worth their while to investigate, collect, and record the language, customs, and traditions of the natives, so that modern science is indebted to them for the most copious and valuable material for philological and ethnological research. No doubt, few of them were fully conscious of the services they were rendering to latter-day research, as they were more engrossed by their immediate aim, the civilisation and conversion of the Indians.

Wherever the temporal and spiritual governments were in line in their treatment of the natives, one naturally hears less of the successful activity of the monks; although the fact of the appearance of the Dominicans and of Las Casas, besides the existence of numerous isolated notes in the official records and in the

secular and clerical chronicles, prove that their activity extended in the same measure into territories other than those in which they were more especially active. They have raised for themselves an immortal monument, more especially in the history of these latter parts. After the whole of the new continent had been superficially explored during the period of the conquest, Spanish colonial activity was, towards the close of the sixteenth century, concentrated on those regions whose agricultural development promised immediate advantages from a European point of view.

Missionaries the Pioneers of Civilisation

But wide tracts of land, where it was assumed that, owing either to climatic, political, or trade reasons, no remunerative cultivation was possible, remained almost entirely untouched. The greater part of the South American continent to the east of the Cordilleras and to the north of the mouth of the river La Plata belonged to this rejected territory. In this vast district, through which the mighty Amazon, with its tributaries, the Paraguay and other tributaries of the river La Plata, flowed, the work of cultivation and of introducing and maintaining European standards of civilisation were almost exclusively the work of missionaries.

At first it was chiefly the Franciscans and Augustinians who, from the monasteries and colleges of the Peruvian highlands, undertook the conversion of the Indians living farther down stream and along the rivers flowing from the Cordilleras towards the east. These spiritual fathers, with incomparable self-sacrifice and self-forgetfulness, wandered among the savage natives, often only gaining, after months and years of activity, the means for the closer understanding which laid the foundation for their material and religious labour of civilisation. Recognising that the wandering life of the Indians was extremely fatal to all enduring spiritual

**Converting
the American
Indians**

months and years of activity, the means for the closer understanding which laid the foundation for their material and religious labour of civilisation. Recognising that the wandering life of the Indians was extremely fatal to all enduring spiritual

influence, and that to gather them together in fixed settlements was an essential condition of their progress in civilisation, the missionaries invariably aimed, first of all, at finding and pointing out to the Indian tribes whose conversion was in contemplation likely dwelling-places which would suit not only their propensities,

Villages Closed against Europeans

but also the requirements of civilisation. In doing this they intentionally avoided the proximity of European settlements, in spite of the laws which prohibited to Europeans in general a prolonged sojourn in the Indian villages.

Moreover, in quite early times they covered the upper and middle valleys of the tributaries of the Marañon, and during the seventeenth century the valleys of this river also, as well as of other great rivers of South America, with a network of Indian villages and hamlets. The greater number of these fell into ruin in course of time, owing either to the retrogression of the native population, which became evident there also, or to the persecution which was afterwards stirred up against the activity of the spiritual fathers. But they had laid the actual foundation for the advance of European civilisation throughout the entire territory.

The sphere and the character of the missions to the Indians of South America became most familiar through the Jesuits, who, in the second half of the sixteenth and the beginning of the seventeenth centuries, extended their missionary activity, which had been inaugurated by the devout Francis Xavier in the east, to the New World in the west. One must not, however, overlook the fact that the peculiar constitution of the so-called "reductions" and "missions" was neither invented by the Jesuits nor ever exclusively maintained by them. Its conception has been more especially attributed to their order because the Jesuit missions of Brazil

The Jesuits Active in Paraguay

and Paraguay have influenced the political history of the South American continent as no other order has done. The Jesuits, in concurrence with other religious associations, early began their activity as missionaries, if anything, in a greater degree perhaps in the Portuguese than in the Spanish territory. But they only assumed an exceptional position when, in the year 1608, a special district in Paraguay was assigned to them, free from all

civil authority, where they were able to carry out the attempts at the civilisation and conversion of the Indians on a larger scale. There was no special motive attached to the fact that the government, in so doing, endowed them with an unusual amount of independence.

The Bull of Alexander VI. with reference to the line of demarcation had in principle established the boundaries of the Spanish and Portuguese colonial sphere, but its general and indefinite wording was quite inadequate for a really political demarcation. Both governments soon recognised this when the mouth of the river La Plata was discovered simultaneously by rival explorers. Several attempts at a diplomatic understanding were made in consequence of this, but, in point of fact, both Powers still attached far too little importance to the unexplored and unpromising territory whose possibilities seemed doubtful.

With time these circumstances assumed real importance, chiefly through the dissimilar colonial policy pursued by the two Powers in these border districts. Asuncion, on the Paraguay, was the chief

Portuguese in South America

of all the Spanish colonies, where from the beginning the relations between the natives and the colonists had been especially friendly, and where the best spirit of Spanish legislation for the Indians found expression regardless of outward circumstances. Bonds of friendship were formed between the brave and honest Guarani and the confederates of Irala which, during the course of centuries, were scarcely ever seriously doubted. The covenant with this mighty and widely dispersed Tupi tribe soon brought out the underlying contrast between the Spanish colonists and their eastern neighbours, the Portuguese.

The powers of little Portugal were so entirely engrossed by East Indian politics that the Brazilian colonial territory was, scarcely ten years after its discovery by Cabral, given over entirely to private enterprise. In this way a number of small settlements were founded in the Bahia de Todos os Santos, at Cape St. Vincent, and on the island of St. Caterina in the bay of Rio de Janeiro. These were at first regarded as Portuguese colonies, but, besides the few actual Portuguese and Portuguese Jews in the colony, there were a number of questionable characters, the subjects of every realm, who carried on

trade of a very doubtful merit, and whose products were sent, not only to Lisbon, but also, if they succeeded in evading the customs, to French, English, and even Hanseatic harbours.

While the foreign merchants dealt principally in brazil-wood, sugar, and similar colonial products, the Portuguese chiefly carried on a brisk trade in Indian slaves, whom they did not take so much to Lisbon as to the colonial harbours, irrespective of whether these natives belonged to Portuguese or to Spanish territory. As was the case everywhere else, the consequence of the slave-hunts was that the natives retired farther and farther from the coast. The slave-hunters, however, followed their prey into the interior by the most accessible paths—that is, by the waterways; and thus they soon also came in conflict with the Guarani, and through them, indirectly, with the Spanish colonists.

In order to put an end to these lawless conditions, and to draw greater advantages from this colonial possession, the Portuguese Government decided on a change in its colonial system.

Portugal's New System of Administration

In the year 1531 a great part of Brazil was divided into so-called "capitanries"—vast tracts of land for which the rights of feudal lords, as in the Old World, were granted to the owners in return for an insignificant royalty payable to the Crown. This colonial system was also tried by the English in a part of Northern America.

The thirty-five capitanries which arose under this system had this advantage—that they brought about actual attempts at settlements in many places, and in this way the first sugar plantations, with their refineries, and the first farms were established. On the whole, however, the system did not work satisfactorily. Many of the capitanries were relinquished by the owners; others dragged on a weary existence. Above all, the illegalities in the trade with foreign countries and the sorties of the slave-hunters still continued, even when a central authority had been established for the separate districts, and a vice-regent had been sent over to occupy the residence at Bahia.

The attempt at colonisation by the French Protestants, under Villegaignon, proves how little real authority the Portuguese had over their Brazilian possession. The French expedition was the

result of the trade which had for a considerable time been carried on illegally, yet unhindered, between Dieppe and the coast of Brazil. Those lovers of adventure who were anxious to emigrate imagined they could easily found a new home there, and annex a valuable portion of colonial territory for their mother country

Underhand Methods of the French

without difficulty. As a matter of fact, they were in possession of the bay of Rio de Janeiro for almost five years. If internal disputes and altered political conditions at home had not come fortuitously to the aid of the Portuguese, a long time might have elapsed before the future capital of Brazil had once more become Portuguese property.

The French, retiring more and more towards the north, repeatedly attempted to gain a footing on Brazilian soil, and for this purpose made most clever use of the policy which they had so successfully carried through on a larger scale in their settlements on the St. Lawrence. They allied themselves with the natives, not only to gain peace with them, but also that they might incite them against their colonial rivals. This policy was easy in Brazil, because, in the eyes of the Portuguese, the native continued to be a commodity to be employed to the best advantage.

The union of Portugal with Spain in the year 1580 was not to be without influence on colonial legislation, although the government of Portugal and its colonies remained entirely separate, in spite of the conquest by Philip II. Many laws were formulated which in principle tended towards the personal liberty of the Indians. They were, nevertheless, almost entirely without influence on the actual circumstances, for the colonists always managed so that their property in Indian slaves should remain judicially unassailed. The conditions for the native were improved only farther towards the interior,

Brazil a Mission Field of Jesuits

where even to this day the views held are very divergent. The Jesuits, of whom the first came to Brazil in 1549, found an extended field of labour there. That they were at first less harassed by the slave-hunters in the northern provinces may be due to the fact that the latter were principally kept in the south owing to long-standing custom, as well as from the insecurity of the political boundaries and other circumstances. There

they soon developed into a perfect scourge, not only to the Indians, but also to the Spanish colonists. The remarkable state creation of the missions of Paraguay originated when the Jesuits inaugurated their efforts in favour of the natives in the south also; about which, then and to this day, opinions have been so divided.

The Jesuits with a Free Hand The Jesuits' object was to save the Guarani from the persecution of the Europeans. As they had, however, made the discovery that the colonists and colonial officials of Asuncion and Buenos Ayres frequently made common cause secretly with the Portuguese slave-traders for their own advantage, they did not remain satisfied, as they had done elsewhere, with going into the jungle and gathering the natives around them there, but they induced Philip III., who was ruler of Spain and Portugal simultaneously, to transfer to them a tract of land to the east of Paraguay as far as to the Uruguay.

Here they were permitted to do as they liked, almost without interference from either temporal or spiritual authority. Their efforts to bring the Indians of the surrounding regions under their benevolent control were immediately crowned with extraordinary success, for the inhabitants of their reductions soon numbered more than 100,000 souls. It was not exclusively Guarani who gained admission there, but, as the tribes belonged almost without exception to the Tupi race, the Jesuits had no difficulty in making Guarani the general language. They attempted and achieved this also in the north Brazilian missions. The Guarani which they developed is actually the *lingua geral* which still is the universal language of the civilised natives of Brazil.

The social order which the Jesuits instituted in the mission districts made a more marked impression both on contemporaries and on posterity. That they,

Developing the New Communities in so doing, acted from philosophical standpoints, and that they attempted to realise Campanella's "City of the Sun,"

are probably only surmises which were introduced subsequently. The models by which the Jesuits were inspired were of considerably greater consequence to them. The extensive landed property of the religious communities was, on the one hand, managed, if not generally, at any rate in isolated instances, directly by the

brotherhood. But the model of the Inca-Peruvian social organisation, with its renunciation of private property and its universal labour obligation, had an even greater influence in the development of the most important characteristics of the Jesuit community.

The conception of personal property was then but very little developed among most of the uncivilised Indian tribes, and labour in common was the rule. It is not surprising that the missionaries experienced no difficulty in instituting the same arrangements, for they offered the Indian a number of things besides, which he coveted and prized, but which, under previous forms of association, he had but seldom enjoyed; these were regular and plentiful food and continued protection from his fellow-savage as well as from his white enemies. The clergy followed the sensible plan for the mission to the heathen by making civilisation the first step to conversion.

The mental capacity of the savage is unable to grasp the higher matters of Christian dogmas, and the civilised Indian must often enough have formed very extraordinary conceptions of them; and in order to be able to make him a Christian, even if only in seeming, a start had first to be made by civilising him. In consequence of the cruel slave-hunts of the Portuguese, and the often scarcely better treatment which the natives received from the Spanish colonists, the Jesuits succeeded, in a surprisingly short time, in collecting a considerable number of natives on the territory which had been assigned to them. They thus founded a number of districts, each of which contained at least 2,000 inhabitants, but they all manifested a very typical conformity among themselves.

The church formed the centre of each reduction. As the colony quickly acquired considerable agricultural wealth, which was allowed to be employed only for the benefit of the missions themselves, a number of almost monumental church buildings were raised in these Indian villages in the remote jungle. In other respects these districts must have given a very monotonous impression. Next to the church there was a large open square surrounded by the most important buildings—the dwelling of the padre and the store and meeting-houses. From it straight streets started rectangularly, and



THE FAMOUS CHURCH OF SAN IGNACIO, BUILT BY THE INDIANS A.D. 1750



SIDE ENTRANCE OF THE SAME CHURCH AND ANOTHER MISSION BUILDING

HISTORIC REMAINS OF JESUIT MISSION BUILDINGS IN ARGENTINA

the prospect was in every instance formed by a chapel standing on the border of the common. The simple huts of the Indians were situated along these streets, and all the buildings were erected by the community and remained its property. The inhabitants had only the use of the dwellings, and of the small gardens situated

Socialism in Jesuit Settlements near them they partly had personal possession. The garden was the only thing which the family supervised themselves, and, it is said, generally very badly. The extensive maize and cotton fields adjoining the common, and the considerable herds of oxen and sheep, which constituted the chief wealth of the reduction, were cultivated and managed according to the directions of the missionaries for the benefit of the community.

The entire produce found its way into the granaries, whence it was then distributed by the padres to each individual household. In the same way the regulation of the work depended upon them, each inhabitant being pledged to do some, according to his trade and capacity. With such labourers it was but a trifling matter for the missionaries to provide for the necessary requirements of shelter, clothing and sustenance; they also introduced many cultured arts, such as carving, watchmaking and even printing. It is no doubt due to the steady method of their instruction, as well as to an actual mental deficiency, that the Indian, in all his training, never succeeded in getting beyond imitation, and never made any inventions or progress, in spite of the discipline of civilisation which had influenced him for more than a hundred years.

The Jesuits defended themselves against the attacks of those who reproached them for having intentionally crushed the human liberty of their charges with the assertion that it had been impossible to force the Indian from his condition of perpetual child-

The Natives Happy with the Missionaries ishness, and that a greater degree of personal liberty would only have injured the individual and the general good. There may be much truth in this; at any rate, it is certain that the natives were actually contented under the guidance of the missionaries, and that they not only rendered them almost unconditional obedience, but also took serious pains to retain their spiritual rulers when the government thought it advisable to recall them.

The authority of the missionaries was, it is true, directly as well as indirectly almost unlimited. There were in each reduction only two Europeans, both regular priests, of whom one, the actual leader, supervised the spiritual, while the other managed the material concerns of the settlement. They were assisted by a kind of municipality founded upon the model of the Spanish colonial towns, which, though it depended upon the election of the community, was always absolutely subservient to the missionaries.

The fact that there was hardly a temporal judicial authority proves how entirely the Jesuits had their charges under control. The inhabitants were governed almost exclusively by the power of the confessional, and the Jesuits have themselves shown that actual sins came to their knowledge but very rarely through the confessional. The Jesuits also naturally represented their communities abroad, for they had made them, as far as possible, independent of the outer world, both politically and economically. An outsider rarely found his way to the missions; and the twofold

Prosperity a Source of Danger reason why the stranger became exclusively the guest of the padres was first in order to prevent his closer acquaintance with the natives, and secondly to preserve the latter from unfavourable outside influences. One of the missionaries left the settlement at long intervals, accompanied by one of the most reliable of the natives, for the purpose of exchanging, in the Spanish settlements, the surplus of their productions, consisting principally of cotton and hides, for anything which the reductions did not themselves produce; but even then contact with the European was avoided as much as possible.

The reductions increased rapidly in Paraguay and soon possessed a large population, and this circumstance in itself threatened to become fatal. All the settlements were unprotected, and the missionaries themselves considered it a decided advantage to calm the warlike tendencies of the Guaranis, who had once been celebrated for their daring bravery; besides this, a law which was generally valid forbade the arming of the Indians. Thus the Portuguese slave-robbers, who in the seventeenth century already had at their disposal a well-organised and well-armed force, experienced no difficulty when the idea occurred to them, in the year 1637,

of taking their Indian slaves from the missions instead of having to track them laboriously in the jungle. This development was indeed an eventful one for the Jesuits. Forthwith, in consideration of the prevailing circumstances, they secured for their native charges the suspension of the law against the carrying of firearms, and thereafter the friars brought up the natives to be good and thorough soldiers.

They not only easily repelled the attacks of other savage natives, but also beat the Paulists—so the Portuguese slave-hunters were called, after their native place, the Province San Paulo—so completely that they were forced to transfer the field of their activity farther into the northern continent. They also proved themselves extremely trustworthy and well-drilled fighting material whenever, through risings in the interior or hostilities on the borders, the Spanish settlements were threatened by other Europeans.

The Jesuits thus carried on the work of the conversion of the natives for more than a century without interruption, with the exception of the dissensions with the spiritual and temporal authorities of the neighbouring districts. In the

Separation of Spain and Portugal

meantime the tendency of the spirit of the age in the Old World had become more and more opposed to their order, and this attitude of things finally affected their settlements in the remote jungle also. The first impulse, it is true, arose from purely political motives. With the continuous opening up and development of the South American continent, Spain and Portugal at length in the same way felt the necessity for a more distinct demarcation of their colonial possessions. The personal union of the two kingdoms which had been established by Philip II. was again annulled by the Portuguese protest of 1640, and in 1668, after long-standing animosities, Spain was forced to acknowledge the supremacy of the house of Braganza in Portugal and her colonies. Soon afterwards the Spanish Crown passed to the Bourbon dynasty. When Ferdinand VI. began from within to reorganise the state, which had been ruined by long mismanagement and by the prolonged war of succession, a newer, freer, and clearer impulse was also given to colonial progress.

The desire for the regulation of the Brazilian boundary was one of the issues. The Portuguese had repeatedly laid claim

to the left shore of the mouth of the La Plata. They had founded a town, Colonia, opposite to Buenos Ayres, and had often attempted to extend their settlements in this region; and this became an especial thorn in the flesh to the government at Madrid, because these settlements were exclusively for the purpose of illegally

Breaking up the Mission Settlements breaking through the bounds by which Spain sought to secure her trade with the colonists.

As Portugal, however, possessed only a slight interest in these advanced coast towns, she readily agreed that Spain should exchange considerable plains of land in the interior, part of which formed the left bank of the Uruguay—on which were seven of the missions carried on by the Jesuits—for the left bank of the mouth of the La Plata.

The agreement provided that the natives should quit the territory under the guidance of their spiritual leaders, and should travel farther into the Spanish territory. When, however, the boundary commissioners at length began to carry out the agreement on this spot, they were not only met by the Jesuits with urgent remonstrances, but the natives by force of arms offered a resistance which was at first successful. The Jesuits soon again submitted to the order for obedience which had proceeded from Spain, and with the same spirit brought their influence to bear upon the natives. These could not, however, readily make up their minds to give up the loved home for whose defence they had taken up arms, and though it did not actually result in a serious battle, yet it required the approach of a considerable force, which had been collected by Spain and Portugal together, to convince them of the fruitlessness of their attempt.

The incident was in itself so simple and harmless that it scarcely offered a ground for complaint against the Jesuits; but in the hands of the all-powerful Portuguese

Pombal the Fierce Enemy of the Jesuits minister, the Marquess de Pombal, who then already sought an occasion to attack the influential Jesuit order,

it assumed the guise of a heavy accusation. It was not difficult, by means of torture, to force from two captive Indians belonging to the mission the confession that the Jesuits had urged and goaded them on to armed resistance against the order of the allied monarchs. Then a baptised Guarani, whose name was Nicholas, gathered

together the remaining Indians, who permanently disobeyed the order to leave, and formed them into a band of homeless outlaws. With these he continued the war of robbery and plunder against the European settlements on both sides of the frontier. This gave rise to the fable of that independent kingdom which yielded

The Jesuits Fallen on Evil Days obedience to no temporal power, which the Jesuits, with the help of the natives, were supposed to have striven to establish in the interior of South America. This accusation was of great importance in connection with the expulsion of the Jesuits from Portugal, so much desired and finally accomplished by Pombal.

It is also possible that it may have had some influence upon the deliberations of Charles III. and his Ministers when it became a question of taking a stand against the Society of Jesus in the conflict which was waged throughout the whole world. Unquestionably, neither Pombal nor any other far-seeing and intelligent statesman seriously believed in such an accusation; it was, at the most, brought up as an expedient in the agitation in order to conceal the purely worldly and political motives which determined the expulsion of the Jesuits from Portugal and Spain.

Moreover, the Jesuits have not left the slightest proof that the accusations brought against their missionary activity, where only their own personal interests were in question, were well merited. Both in Brazil and Paraguay they submitted with dumb resignation to the order which recalled them suddenly and without any preparation from the field of action where they had successfully laboured for a hundred years. Even the unworthy and revengeful manner in which the order was carried out by the officials appointed for this purpose did not in a single instance force them from their purely passive role of endurance. In obedience to the order they vanished from

How History has Justified the Missionaries all places where either the welfare of their charges was threatened or where they foresaw that want and death would be inevitable for themselves. History has justified them in one respect. No matter how one may judge of their system with regard to the treatment of the natives, they at any rate perfectly understood how to take care of their individual well-being, and to teach them to become absolutely submissive and useful subjects.

Those who succeeded to their inheritance in a few years again alienated the Indians from all the progress in civilisation which they had made under the Jesuits, and by a wrong treatment turned them once more into wandering savage tribes. And thus they have remained wherever the bare jealousy of the more highly civilised white man presumes to see in the Indian, who, mentally, has not yet grown out of the fetters of centuries of ancient prejudices, a creature of an inferior order.

The expulsion of the Jesuits is the last important phase in the native policy of latinised South America. From that time the care of the Indians in the sphere of missions was transferred to temporal authorities. While in the other provinces they had been gradually learning actually to carry into effect the well-intentioned aims of the native legislation, these first-mentioned provinces had once more to go through the entire range of experience with regard to the treatment of the natives, and their natural development, which had taught the others tolerance. With regard to the position of the Indians, scarcely any

The Indians Backward in Development confirmed grounds of complaint existed in general during the last twenty years of Spanish colonial rule. Where there remained dependence and a certain lack of enterprise, this was rather the result of a natural propensity inculcated by the generations that had previously followed old customs than the effect of a perverted application of the law.

The greater proportion of the Indians do not, even in the present day, completely understand the white man's hypothesis of a progressive civilisation, or his attitude and mental outlook, even though for two generations past this development in progress has been maintained by free citizens of free republics with every imaginable guarantee of personal liberty. These are, however, conditions which have unavoidably manifested themselves, and will continue to do so as a necessity of nature, wherever two nations, holding entirely different theories concerning civilisation, and having such marked differences in the degree of culture, come into conflict. It is possible that certain specially gifted individuals might be able to raise themselves at length to a complete equality of culture, but the large proportion of less highly civilised people will always remain, both mentally and physically, dependent upon the more advanced race.



SPAIN'S GOLDEN ERA IN AMERICA AND THE DAYS OF THE BUCCANEERS

WHILE it must be acknowledged that the policy of the Spanish Government regarding the native question was the most enlightened and well-intentioned of any which had been put into practice anywhere, this cannot be affirmed with reference to their trade policy. The fact that the entire trade communication with the colonies was monopolised by the one harbour of Seville was as much the result of the arrangements made with Columbus as an imitation of the Portuguese model.

The explorer had, according to agreement, stipulated that he should receive, besides the right of participation in all subsequent colonial voyages, a share in the clear profit from the combined colonial undertakings. In order to fulfil this stipulation, it became an unavoidable necessity that all colonial enterprises should be strictly controlled with reference to their cost and profit. This would naturally have been impossible if the ships destined for the colonies had been allowed to sail from every harbour of the Spanish peninsula, which was surrounded by the sea on three sides. As is well known, it was not until far into the sixteenth century that a definite understanding was arrived at, after long law-suits and repeated agreements between the government and the heirs of Columbus.

The fact, however, that the exclusive monopoly of the trade by Seville, and the strict regulations of the customs, were adhered to, was undoubtedly the consequence of the political views which on this subject prevailed with the government. The land which came to the Crown of Castile as an integral and permanent part through the discovery of Columbus was not regarded so much as a territorial accession of land as an increase of the Crown domains belonging to the kings of Castile. This acceptance was shared in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries by all the Powers who carried on any colonial policy whatever, the remains

of which can be traced almost everywhere. In Spain they have been maintained so strongly that modern Spain cannot quite free herself from them, in spite of three generations of progressive revolutions.

According to such an acceptance of the law it naturally depended upon the pleasure of the government, or of those to whom the government had transferred their rights, as to who should be admitted to the colonies, either with the object of settling there or for the purposes of trade. The restrictions were then also, from the beginning, very numerous, and they were, with the exception of several fundamental amplifications instituted during the first decades, maintained with, if anything, almost too great severity. As the colonies belonged to the Crown of Castile, the Castilians possessed, in the first instance, the natural right to trade therein, but this prerogative had also been conceded to the Aragonese since 1495.

The privilege received yet further expansion after the accession of Charles V. Considerations of an agricultural nature were principally responsible for the resolution to permit all subjects of the many kingdoms ruled by the Spanish king to have access to the colonies. Spain was endowed with extensive colonial possessions at a moment when such a national property could, and did, become extremely dangerous. Hardly had the political unity of the actual Spanish soil been established by the removal of the last Moorish kingdom, and scarcely had Ferdinand and Isabella taken the first steps to lead the country—whose agricultural development had been much impaired by the continued war against the Moors—to a greater expansion of its natural resources, when a new and dangerous enemy to its national industry arose. Thus the discovery of America removed thousands upon thousands of strong labourers from

Restricted Entry to the Colonies

Seville's Exclusive Trade Monopoly

The Spanish Rush to America

the national work of the by no means large population, and created serious competition between the life of hazardous colonial profits and the slow but certain and advancing field of labour in both agriculture and handicraft at home. Although the agricultural development was successfully carried on upon the

An Open Door in the New World

foundations laid by the Catholic rulers, yet the mother country could not, under such difficult conditions, carry on the exclusive maintenance of the colonial territory, which rapidly increased from century to century. From the time of the proclamation of the law in question, the exclusion of strangers had already been disregarded in favour of those who knew how to take care of the interests of the state and of the colonies while seeking their own gain.

That Charles V., in opening up the New World to all his subjects, acted from the standpoint that the solution of the agricultural problems which had been imposed upon the colonies by the government lay in gaining new forces is more especially evidenced by the fact that he called upon all the most powerful agricultural factors of his most distant Spanish dominions to co-operate in the colonial enterprises. From Germany he summoned the Hanses and the Augsburgers, and from Italy, more especially, the great merchants.

The laws of the country concerning the trade with the colonies were, of course, also binding upon these. They, too, were obliged first to enter Seville with their ships and wares, pay the entrance duty, and also submit to the compulsory registration which was supervised by the Casa de Contratacion, according to which no person or trade commodity was permitted to enter the colony without satisfying the legal demands. Like the Spaniards, they were also bound to return to Seville and again go through the same formalities. All

Spain's Trade Relations with Her Colonies

costly articles from the colonies, more especially ores, also came under this prohibition, which forbade such articles being taken out of Spain. As Spain, with its colonies as well as through them, consumed considerably more trade commodities than it was able to supply to foreign countries, this regulation could not be enforced permanently, as in time became evident to the government, engrossed as it was in mercantile questions. However,

it neither knew how to remedy the evil nor recognised the fact that, owing to the entirely altered conditions created by the production of ores in the New World, gold and silver had dropped in their exchange value to the trade level for wares, the price of which no human laws can fix. Trade with the colonies during the earlier years was burdened by no customs duties, but as commercial intercourse increased, export and import duties were introduced, such as had been imposed between the several Spanish territories. As precious ores were not wares, they were not affected; but the state, by levying a royalty on the profits from their sale, secured a share for itself.

It was of the utmost importance, more especially at first, that the government should revive the trade with the colonies. For this purpose it readily granted, through the Casa de Contratacion, the necessary passes to every ship which proposed sailing across the ocean, and sold such charts as could be supplied. It also established its own court of pilots as a school for helmsmen and as a centre

Traders who Escaped the Customs

for examination. The rigour of the law was at first often suspended, and incidentally the number of ports of departure was considerably increased, the Canary Islands securing exemption from the enforced call at Seville. Forced registration, also, was not strictly maintained. It was a well-known fact that the returning vessels often secretly deposited a considerable portion of their costly freight on the shores of the Portuguese Azores, in order to escape the customs, and Philip II., during the first years of his reign, instructed his councillors not to interpose the full severity of the law against this practice, in so far, at all events, as his own subjects were concerned.

Naturally these restrictive regulations were particularly burdensome to the colonies. By preventing free competition, they, in combination with the superabundance of gold and silver, caused the prices between the colonies and the mother country, at the end of the sixteenth century, to be in the ratio of three to one, and even as five to one. The agitation for the removal of the trade restrictions was at that time enormously powerful there. But it was the absolute impossibility of preventing in any way the misuse of measures intended to procure alleviation in a distant land, and

over an endless extent of thinly populated coast, that caused the government to adhere with even greater severity to the system of enforced registration.

Before any harbour for imports in the New World, besides San Domingo, could become of importance for trade purposes, political circumstances in the mother country led to a fresh organisation of her commercial intercourse with the colonies. These proved of extraordinary service to the system of control pursued by the government, without tending to make the disadvantages connected with it perceptible to the colonists. The results which the Spaniards and Portuguese achieved with the aid of their trans-Atlantic maritime power were not without reaction on the remaining European Powers. French and English sailors, often guided during their first voyages by Italian pilots, soon also ventured to cross the ocean; their discoveries in North America are dealt with elsewhere.

So long as Spain remained at peace with the rest of the world, and its colonies yielded only moderate compensation in return for the disbursement made, this intermeddling of foreign Powers in the colonial sphere remained comparatively unimportant. When, however, under Charles V., the plans for the government of the world by Spain became more and more sharply defined, violent antagonism arose, at first against France under Philip II., and also against England. This gave rise to open enmity, which led to repeated wars in Europe, daring privateering voyages on the ocean, and finally, also, to those buccaneering expeditions and attacks on the other side of the ocean from which the colonial ports had long to suffer, until at length the foreign Powers succeeded in securing portions of the ancient Spanish colonial possessions.

When this enmity first became apparent through the capture of single and unarmed ships sailing between Spain and the colonies, Charles V. issued the decree, in the year 1526, that in times of war the ships should no longer set sail and return singly, but should, under the leadership of competent captains, be combined into fleets capable of resistance. This was the origin of the celebrated "plate-fleets" and galleons, which for two centuries carried on the trade exclusively between Spanish America and the remainder of the civilised

world. This measure was at first introduced only with reference to the security of trans-oceanic commerce; that it rendered the most important services to the Crown's fiscal control was certainly soon proved and acknowledged by all the interested parties. The diffusion of the Spanish race in the New World had not reached its termination when the fleets were introduced. Several phases in the development of this institution had to be passed through before it received its permanent establishment, after which it remained approximately as follows.

The Celebrated Plate-fleets and Galleons

The ships which intended sailing to the West Indies assembled annually in the months of March and September at Seville, or, when their draught did not allow of it, at San Lucar de Barrameda, or, later on, at Cadiz. They had to be at least ten in number, otherwise the fleet was not permitted to set sail. As a rule, there were between thirty and forty, and in some cases a great many more ships. In the year 1589, no less than ninety-four vessels going from Panama to the South were required to transport all that the fleet had brought to Portobello. Ships of less than a hundred tons were, as a rule, excluded from participation in the voyage to the Indies, and all, even the heavily freighted merchantmen, were obliged to carry at least four heavy and sixteen light guns, and every man on board carried weapons.

Two of the largest vessels were selected as "capitana" and "almiranta"; the first, carrying all the highest in command of the whole fleet, sailed in advance, while the admiral's ship formed the rear-guard with the special duty of keeping the fleet together. The capitana and almiranta were more strongly built than the other ships, and, in order to increase their powers of action in battle, they were not allowed to be freighted to the same extent as the merchantmen. Besides these, the fleet was at first accompanied by at least one, and later on by several larger ships—the galleons—whose chief duty it was to watch over the safety of the fleet. They had a tonnage of at least two hundred to three hundred, were powerfully equipped, and were allowed only light freight.

Guardians of Spain's Treasures

They were at the same time intended to bring back in safety to Spain the gold and silver which were due to the Crown as taxes and duty. In times of war the Indian fleets,

The Days of Buccaneering Expeditions

upon which the entire wealth of Spain depended, were not even thus considered sufficiently well guarded. A protecting fleet, consisting of galleys and galleons, was therefore also equipped out of the revenue from the additional tax which had been levied upon the Indian trade for this purpose, and these had to accompany the trading fleets on the high seas and escort the returning ones in the same way. Finally, several lighter and smaller ships — despatch-vessels, called “avisos” — were attached to each fleet, their duty being to go in advance, so as to discover threatening dangers and to prepare the officials on either side for the arrival of the fleet.

The combined fleet sailed from Seville to San Domingo, where the official control to which they had been submitted at the port of sailing was renewed. The ships which were to sail via Porto Rico and Havana to Vera Cruz formed the so-called “Fleet of New Spain”; they then separated from those which first sailed through the Gulf of Mexico to Cartagena and thence to Portobello. The latter, called the “Continental Fleet,” was by far the more important of the two, as it carried all the merchandise from the whole southern continent of America. All direct commercial intercourse with the mother country, except through these fleets, was not only forbidden to all the provinces, but was also so fettered by customs restrictions and trade rules that the colonies were at the most only permitted to exchange certain products of their own soil, but never European trade commodities.

The Continental Fleet, in the first instance, supplied Peru and Chili, starting from Portobello, but soon after also Tucuman and Paraguay, the countries of the modern Argentina. The anomaly that the merchandise for the south-east of America had to traverse the watershed between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans twice before arriving at its place of destination arose from there being no noteworthy colony at the mouth of the La Plata. Buenos Ayres had, it is true, been founded in the year 1535, but it was almost immediately dissolved, its final colonisation taking place in 1562. It was, however, for the time being of no importance, owing to its great distance from the centres of Spanish colonial government, and its

exposed position on a coast which was difficult to defend, and also because of its immediate proximity to the Portuguese, who claimed the opposite shore of the bay as their territory. The Spanish Government did not consider it advisable to recognise the town as a harbour in the trans-oceanic trade intercourse. This region was first organised in 1617 as a special colonial district, and remained for a considerable time the seat of an extensive but illegal trade with foreign nations before the government decided, in conjunction with the alteration in the trade with Chili and Peru by way of Cape Horn, to include Buenos Ayres also among the places to be affected by the trade of the fleets.

Up to that time the principal traffic was confined to the route via Portobello. As a settlement this town was of no importance, and it remained uninhabited during the greater part of the year, owing to its unhealthy climate. At all events, the greatest business transactions and the wildest speculations of the whole of South America were made there during the forty days’ market, or fair, that followed the arrival of the fleet. A luxurious life of pleasure, incidental to easily won gains, reigned for a short time in the town, which consisted of hastily erected tents and huts. When, however, at the conclusion of the fair, preparations were made for the return, the population of Portobello vanished, not to come back again within another half or whole year, or even longer period, when the same scene was re-enacted. The regularity of the fleets left much to be desired; there never was a lack of adventurous vessels, but conditions of the weather and political complications often prevented the regular carrying out of the despatch of the fleets in sailing. More than once the fair of Portobello had to be postponed or stopped altogether, because the expected ships had been wrecked or had fallen into the hands of hostile privateers.

Thus it happened that though the optional sailings of the fleets had at first been joyfully welcomed as a sign of progress, the inconvenience caused by the ships arriving far too seldom to meet the colonists’ requirements became a heavy burden, which was felt all the more when an extraordinary rise in the price of all trade commodities resulted. Nevertheless, owing to the ever-increasing insecurity on the ocean, the government strictly

The Humble Beginnings of Buenos Ayres



BUCCANEERS ATTACKING A SPANISH TREASURE SHIP

To the European settlers in the West Indies the seventeenth century was a period of outlawry. Bands of buccaneers, originally smugglers and pirates, mostly recruited from convicts transported to the islands from England and France, were the terror of the Caribbean Sea. Composed of almost all nationalities, with the exception of Spain, they pursued everything Spanish with a deadly hatred. In 1630 their headquarters in San Domingo were destroyed, but in a few years the adventurers returned in force and for the next seventy years fattened on European trade and property.

enforced the regulations which had been drawn up. It might have given way by allowing the departure of the fleets from Europe to take place at any time, and it did, as a matter of fact, make several concessions in this respect, but it had such a prominent interest in the safe return of the entire fleet that it never thought of the possibility of forgoing it.

Pirates on the Watch for Spoil

These fleets were actually the only means of communication between the two worlds, for the entire official and private correspondence was carried by them; but a still more important point was that only with their assistance could all the colonial revenues, which were indispensable for the state budget, reach the government exchequer.

All the colonial offices sent their reports to the respective ports for the custody of the fleets, where the letters and valuables were entrusted to the soundest and safest vessels. Three months after their arrival at San Domingo, the ships of the New Spain and Continental Fleets were instructed to reassemble once more at Havana. The galleons and the equipped convoys filled up the interval with occasional pirate expeditions, until they had once more to undertake the safe-conduct of the united fleets on their return, sailing under similar precautionary measures through the Bahama Sea into the open ocean. This part of the voyage was by far the most dangerous. Spain's political enemies, as well as the pirates, always turned their attention to catching the returning fleet, which, on account of its transport of precious metals, was called the "plate," *ie.*, silver fleet. Occasionally the enemy succeeded completely in this design, but generally only in part.

The colonies, from the beginning, yielded the mother country all kinds of products. Besides the logwood which was much exported from all parts of America, various drugs, and, later on,

America's Unprofitable Gold Mines

large quantities of sugar and hides, formed the freight of the returning vessels. The most valuable portion of the cargo always consisted of gold, silver, pearls and precious stones. Columbus had already found gold in moderate quantities with the natives. As soon as they had become convinced that it was of indigenous origin, the settlers began gold mining and washing. The gold mines, in which, owing to the primitive manner of work-

ing, but comparatively little was achieved in spite of a great expenditure of labour, were the real places of torture for the Indians. At all times and in all places the flotsam and jetsam of human society have assembled among gold-diggers. In the presence of such elements all laws for the protection of the natives were powerless, because each official risked his own life in endeavouring to enforce respect for the law from such an assembly.

But during the whole time of the conquista the actual wealth was not derived from gold and silver mines, but through barter with the natives. Appreciating this fact, the government always willingly encouraged mining industry by granting an abatement of taxes and sending over experienced miners, mostly Germans; but, as always, it demanded and collected the fifth part of all gold gained by barter or on marauding expeditions.

The mining industry did not become remunerative until after the conquest of Mexico. The silver-mines of Sultepeque, and more especially of Guanajuato, yielded such rich ores that they were

Discovery of Potosi's Silver Mines

permanently worked. The Spaniards also found treasures of fabulous value in possession of the natives of Peru; but there, as in all other provinces, the store of precious metals attainable by barter was exhausted comparatively early, and the prospects of the gold and silver mines were, for the moment, decidedly less favourable than in the north, until the silver-mines of Potosi were discovered, quite by chance, in the year 1545. This mining district proved of untold wealth for a long period, and it is chiefly due to it, in combination with the Mexican silver-mines, that the production of precious metals in the New World has been maintained permanently on a comparatively high level.

The first primitive method of procedure made the working of only the richest ores remunerative. The discovery of a process of amalgamation, however, made it possible to gain more extensive profits from the rocks of Mexico and Peru. A German miner, who, owing to a fire which burned out the quicksilver mines of Almaden, had become penniless, was, according to the most recent research, the inventor of amalgam. He went into partnership with a Spaniard, Bartolomé de Medina, for the realisation of his discovery.

However, as the Inquisition permitted only the latter, and not his German master, to go over to Mexico, the Spaniard so entirely assumed the credit of the discovery that not even the name of the German has become known.

The process of extracting silver by means of quicksilver brought about a complete revolution in the mining industry of Mexico. The mine proprietors promised to freight the ships of the New Spain fleet as high as the masts if they could only obtain sufficient quicksilver, and the price of it increased enormously. The monopoly of the profits from the pits of Almaden, which were the largest in the world, and, next to those of Idria, the only ones then worked, had already been acquired previously, and the Spanish government now also claimed the monopoly of the trade. It leased the pits to the Fuggers, who, by an intelligent process of working, under German direction, produced approximately one hundred per cent. of profit during half a century. They were obliged to relinquish all the gains to the government, who sold the

Huge Profits from the Silver Mines quicksilver in America to the mine-owners for three and four times as much as the purchase-money. Thenceforward the galleys, which on the return voyage brought the treasures of gold and silver from America, on the outward voyage carried from 150 to 250 tons of quicksilver. From 1563 to 1641—that is to say, as long as the Fuggers were the leaseholders of the pits of Almaden—silver worth \$250,000,000 is said to have been gained from 12,658 tons of quicksilver which they had extracted. The royalty on this alone amounted to over \$50,000,000.

In the whole export trade that Spain carried on with its colonies there was only one other article which equalled quicksilver in importance, and that was the negro slave. Reference has already been made to the fact that access to the colonies had, in accordance with the oldest legislation, been closed to these slaves, but that the government was not strict in granting exceptions. The negroes did not begin to play an important part in the organisation of the colonies and in colonial trade until Las Casas, with his narrow philanthropic ideas, recommended the importation of negro slaves as a means of liberating the Indians from their state of servitude. If, as was evidently the clear

intention of the Spanish Government, the colonies were to be organised for other purposes than to serve as fulcrums for barter and trade, as had been established by the Portuguese in the Indies, then undoubtedly provision for labourers had to be made. It was quite evident that there were not enough Europeans for this purpose. On the one hand, the climate enfeebled their working powers, and, on the other hand, the disproportion between the number of the European colonists and the expansion of the colonial possessions was such that to surmount the difficulties of colonisation by European forces alone was quite out of the question.

Added to this, the conception which the Spanish Government had of their duty to the colonies forbade Spain's deportation of criminals or doubtful subjects. Columbus wished to attempt the discovery of America with discharged convicts. Portugal, in the irregular method of her colonial policy, had made some experiments with convict settlements in Brazil, but the Spanish laws permitted only the nation's free men to emigrate, and the government, in single instances only, transported misdemeanants at the request of special colonial groups. Even with their help it would have been impossible to carry on mining, cattle-raising and plantations in the colonies simply for this reason, that many kinds—and more especially the higher kinds—of labour always remained to be done by the Europeans. If, therefore, the Indian—who, owing to his indolence and his spirit of independence, could scarcely be induced to do the work voluntarily, according to European standards—was to be exempt from all compulsion, then another supply of labour had to be imported into the colonies.

Las Casas' proposal, that negroes should be used for this purpose in the same manner in which they were employed on the islands on the coasts of Africa, was favourably received by the government. For fiscal reasons the Crown nominally maintained the prohibition of negro importation, but, in consideration of the payment of certain fees, single individuals or companies were allowed to supply to the harbours of the colonies a fixed number of negroes annually. The colonial authorities had been called upon to give a report in respect to their annual

Strict Laws with Regard to Emigration

The Colonies' Demand for Cheap Labour

requirements. In the beginning 4,000 were named, but in the course of the long period during which the "Asiento"—the contract for the monopoly of the importation of slaves—lasted, the number was at various times increased or diminished. The colonists, however, always complained that the supply of negro slaves for the

**Privileges
Enjoyed by the
Slave-ships**

New World fell far short of the actual demand, and the trade in this valuable commodity was at all times the favourite business of the illegal smuggling trade which was carried on by foreign shipowners. There is no doubt that this matter permanently engrossed the attention of the government.

The slave-ships enjoyed certain privileges, inasmuch as they were allowed, by the deposit of a security, to sail from the coast of Guinea, where they purchased their black merchandise from Portuguese dealers, straight to America, where a few ports were open to them for the landing of the negroes. The oldest Asientists already enjoyed certain privileges for the requirements of their trade, and in the return from Spain of their profits in the shape of colonial goods; but they remained bound by the obligation to return to Seville, as well as to be registered in the same manner as all other merchants. As control of them was far more difficult than of the voyages of the fleets and galleys, the Crown's toleration of the Asientists was very soon taken advantage of for the general evasion of the oppressive colonial trade laws and for extensive and growing smuggling.

Though the slave monopoly was at first in the hands of the Genoese and the Germans, it was comparatively little abused, and it was only slightly prejudicial to the legitimate trade in general; yet in time these conditions changed when other nations, with less friendly intentions, took the monopoly into their hands.

**Widespread
Traffic
in Slaves**

The idea of leasing the sole rights in the traffic of slave importation to the Portuguese was not bad in itself, as the Portuguese were in undisputed possession of the *materia prima* of the negroes themselves. The Portuguese merchants received the Asiento at the time when Portugal was bound to Spain by a personal union, and they retained it after the revolt of the Braganzas until the acknowledgment of Portuguese independence by the treaty of

peace in 1667. Then the merchants of Seville temporarily obtained the Asiento for themselves. The Guinea Company, in which Louis XIV. himself had a share, possessed the monopoly of the slave-trade after Spanish America, until political circumstances necessitated the retirement of France.

This was not advantageous to Spain, however, one of the conditions of the Treaty of Utrecht expressly stipulating the cession of the Asiento to the English, who undoubtedly profited most thoroughly by it. The English at the same time received a guarantee for the right to send annually to the colonies, which were closed to the trade of all the other colonies under privileged conditions, two vessels of modest dimensions freighted with European trade commodities, in addition to the slave-ships. It has, however, been reported that these vessels, while they discharged their cargo openly and in sight of the harbour officials during the day, were again freighted by night from larger ships which did not disembark, but rode at anchor outside for no apparent reason. In this way three and four times the bulk

**Profits
of the Slave
Trade**

of their actual merchandise was landed. These were serious evils, which finally induced Ferdinand VI. to repurchase the Asiento contract from the English, even before its legal termination. The reason that the government was so long in deciding upon this step was not alone due to the fact that it was immediately interested in the profits of the English association, nor because the English alone had succeeded in transporting the prescribed number of slaves to the colonies; but it was chiefly owing to the large sums which accrued to the state exchequer by means of these transactions and played an important part in the revenue of the Indies.

The original tax of two dollars per head, by means of which the first holders of the trade monopoly bought the licence, was in time raised to fifteen and twenty dollars. The importation of 3,000 to 4,000 slaves annually thus became also perceptible in the colonial budget of the eighteenth century, when the royalties from the gains of precious metals had diminished considerably. The question has often been discussed as to what amount of gold, silver, and other valuables the Spanish state and country had derived from its trans-Atlantic colonial possessions, but it has never been satisfactorily

SPAIN'S GOLDEN ERA IN AMERICA

settled, owing to the utterly incomplete reports of the trade of Spain and its colonies which have hitherto been obtainable. While it has been asserted that the development of Spanish America was retarded for a hundred years by the colonial policy of Spain, an attempt has been made to attach the responsibility for Spain's economic downfall to the very abundance of precious metals, by the assertion that the gold from the

into the eighteenth century to make use of them in any other way, is a point of view which all the colonial Powers of that age had in common. Probably Spain's attitude would not have changed to this day if the powerful revolutionary agitations which in the New World led to the complete severance of the United States from England and of very nearly the whole of Latin America from Spain, had not forced her to a very different polity:



THE LOSS OF THE REVENGE: SIR RICHARD GRENVILLE'S LAST FIGHT

Forming one of the squadron of queen's ships despatched to the Azores in 1591 to look out for the homeward-bound treasure fleet of Spain, the *Revenge*, under the command of Sir Richard Grenville, was cut off from the admiral and the rest of the squadron by a powerful Spanish fleet. With "her hundred fighters on deck and her ninety sick below," the little *Revenge* made a brave fight against the fifty-three ships of Spain, but was ultimately captured and her gallant commander mortally wounded. So impressed was the Spanish admiral by the heroic stand of the English that he sent his barge to take Sir Richard Grenville to his own ship, the *San Pablo*, where he died a few days later.

From the painting by Sir Oswald Rejzley, by permission of the Art Union of London, 112, Strand

New World corrupted and eventually ruined Spain. That, however, like the previous statements, is an exaggeration.

If Spain had been a sound economic state, there would have been as little likelihood of her corruption by the superfluity of gold and silver as there was of England's being injured by the treasures of India. That Spain did not allow her colonies a freer and more individual life, but regarded them as essentially an asylum for the mother country, and refused until far

The Spanish colonies fulfilled their object until the eighteenth century. They provided the mother country with such abundant means of gold, which was indispensable to her political position in the concert of Europe, that it aroused the envy of all other countries, and tempted them, on the one hand, to embark in colonial enterprises themselves, while, on the other hand, it made them take from the Spaniards as much of their colonial treasures as possible.



VALPARAISO THE CHIEF PORT OF THE CHILIAN REPUBLIC



THE NEW PLAZA IN THE CAPITAL CITY OF SANTIAGO



A CHARACTERISTIC STREET SCENE IN VALPARAISO

SCENES IN THE CAPITAL AND PRINCIPAL PORT OF CHILI

AMERICA



COLONIAL
EMPIRE OF
SPAIN IV

SPAIN'S FIGHT FOR HER EMPIRE AGAINST THE RIVAL EUROPEAN POWERS

FROM the position which the Spanish colonies held in relation to the mother country it naturally follows that they possessed no independent history. Their history comprised the change of officials, the incidental alterations in their administrative organisation, and the regulations for the furtherance of the economic interests instituted far more for the benefit of Spain than for that of the colonies. It was owing to Spain's dependence on them that they became involved in all the political complications of the mother country. The history of all that the colonies had to suffer, as part of the Spanish kingdom, at the hands of Spain's opponents is the nearest approach to a general history of the colonial empire.

When Spain came into warlike conflict with neighbouring European states, the latter did not fail to damage the trade and the naval power of their opponent, on her far-reaching sea-coasts, by means of privateers. In the year 1512 ships were captured by the French, in the course of such attacks, while struggling towards the harbour of Seville on their return from the colonies. A state of war, at times open and at other times latent, prevailed continuously against France during the reigns of Charles V. and Philip II., and it spread the more on the sea because, by the opening up of Mexico and Peru, the colonial trading vessels had become more desirable prey than they had been at the beginning of the century.

The Spanish regents were, however, not blind to this fact. The enemies' attacks upon the South American fleets helped in no small degree the development of that maritime supremacy which Spain maintained during the greater part of the sixteenth century. This ascendancy might perhaps have been more firmly established if Charles V. had not possessed such convenient sources of help

in his great European dominions. The same thing happened here as with the colonial trade, for Spain was unable, during the first years of traffic, to satisfy her colonies' demands, so that she granted participation in maritime trade

The Spanish Fleet Supreme on the Sea to all the allied nations—the Italians, Dutch and Germans. Owing to the abundance of treasure which

the country drew from her colonies, this arrangement became permanent, and the fatal consequences which in such a state of affairs must arise from a defection of her allies were not taken into account.

For the time being, at any rate, the Spaniards succeeded by these means in making themselves the ruling maritime Power. No nation could have dared, before 1580, to meet the Spanish fleet openly on the ocean. Even during the small naval war which the privateers, more especially the French privateers, carried on with the Spaniards the latter were undoubtedly at first superior. It was only due to the exceptionally unfavourable position in which the country, with her colonies, found herself when face to face with the enemy that the latter, in spite of many losses, reaped rich benefit and many advantages from the privateering wars.

The arrangements to safeguard the voyages of the trading fleets, and for their convoy along the coast provinces by the naval ships, soon drove the corsairs away from the Andalusian coast and from Cape St. Vincent, where they might often

Spain's Fights with the Corsairs have become dangerous to the ships returning to Seville. They were obliged to transfer their scene of action farther

off, to regions where the home squadrons could not so readily come to the aid of the trading fleets. But they were not able to remain on the Canary Islands, or on the Azores or the Cape Verde Islands, which they had chosen as their centre.

The Spanish measures of defence finally even forced the enemy to seek for spoil in the very quarters where the Spaniard obtained his—that is to say, in the colonies. The pirates did not long remain in ignorance of the sailing routes appointed for the Spanish fleets, because they, too, depended on the ocean currents. In

Privateers' Harbours of Refuge

the same way they soon learned that many of the smaller Antilles, and even great tracts on the shores of the larger islands, had been entirely abandoned by the colonists and were therefore “no man’s land.” Thus the privateers had no great difficulty in finding harbours of refuge, where they could equip themselves for their unexpected attacks, repair the damages incurred, and place the spoils gained in security.

Only a step remained between the capture of the Spanish ships in the trans-Atlantic waters and the attack and plunder of the colonial settlements. The first stages of open hostility followed during the third Franco-Spanish War in the ‘forties of the sixteenth century. The daring of the privateers—who, with the secret assistance of the French Government, had been extremely well equipped—was so great that they not only plundered and laid under contribution the small and isolated colonial coast places, but also attacked Santa Maria and Cartagena in 1542. In 1555 they seized the capital of Cuba, Havana, and occupied it for twenty-six days. In the face of such conditions all that the government could do was to order the coast towns to be fortified as far as possible, and whenever this could not be done the settlements near the sea-coast were to be abandoned and transferred farther into the interior.

New enemies then arose for the colonies. Up to that time it had been chiefly the French who had done their utmost to injure the colonial trade and the settlements of their traditional enemies. When Queen Elizabeth of England ascended the throne which Philip II. had shared with her sister, the rupture between England and Spain increased year by year, and developed into open hostility, which became all the greater when Elizabeth firmly showed her Protestant tendencies. The English Navy was then far inferior to the Spanish, and was not in a position to contend with it on the

England's Rupture with Spain

ocean; and, moreover, the English seamen did not then appear to be conducting active naval warfare against the Spaniards. They endeavoured, however, to break through the strict embargo laid on the Spanish colonies’ direct trade with the Old World, and in so doing they did not scruple to attack the Spanish ships openly. Soon afterwards they turned their attention to those settlements where their opponents were weak, and where the colonial authorities had opposed their illegitimate trade.

The tactics they generally employed were first to plunder a shipload of negro slaves of the Portuguese on the coast of Guinea, for which they were certain of securing a market in the colonies, often with the connivance of the Spanish authorities. At the same time, they knew thoroughly how to seize any opportunity of striking a blow, and if it proved favourable they were at no loss to know how to provoke the Spaniards so that they themselves could always plead that they had taken up arms only in self-defence. Richard Hawkins had, in 1530, already laid the foundation for the wealth which in later years enabled his cele-

Plundering Voyages of Drake and Hawkins

brated son, John Hawkins, to carry on privateering as a slave merchant, with his own flotilla. This mode of trading was, during the ‘sixties, carried on by numerous English ships. If they reached unknown coasts, they exchanged wares with the natives. They forcibly extorted permission to trade in the Spanish settlements if it was not willingly granted. But such measures had seldom to be resorted to, except for the sake of appearance.

When, however, the Spaniards once gained the upper hand, they naturally did not deal very leniently with them, as Hawkins and Drake experienced at Vera Cruz in 1568. The English did not scruple, when opportunity favoured them, to make an actual attack, such as Drake attempted without complete success on Nombre de Dios and Panama in 1572. A few years later, Drake was the first enemy to advance through the Straits of Magellan into the Pacific Ocean, and to plunder the entirely defenceless coast districts of Chili and Peru, thus gaining an enormous amount of spoil. In order that these spoils might not be exposed to the risk of being seized by the Spaniards, who were on the lookout for him on the return voyage, he took them safely to London by way of the southern point of Africa. There Queen

SPAIN'S FIGHT FOR HER EMPIRE

Elizabeth, on account of his exploits, knighted him, in spite of the Spanish protests. Though the peace between England and Spain, which until then had not been officially declared, had imposed a certain amount of caution upon the English "pirate," this was done away with when, in 1585, both countries were at open war.

In this same year Drake went to sea with twenty-three ships and 2,500 men, and, apart from numerous privateering feats, plundered the towns of San Domingo and Cartagena, destroyed San Agustin in Florida, and brought back 240 guns from the conquered ships and from the subjugated coast districts, besides rich treasures. From that time until the death of Queen Elizabeth scarcely a year passed in which more or less richly equipped fleets did not set sail, either to plunder the coasts of Spain or to ravage the colonies. It was because the English sailors had been thoroughly tried on their daring privateer voyages that they distinguished themselves in the battle against the "invincible" Armada. After the halo which until then had surrounded

Founders of England's Naval Supremacy

the Spanish Navy had been dispelled by this battle, the English came forward as serious rivals for the supremacy of the sea. This struggle, which began with the victory over the Armada at Gravelines, terminated at Trafalgar with their complete triumph. The foundation of England's supremacy at sea was laid by the English seamen, who, like Hawkins and Drake, began as smugglers and pirates.

They first convinced the government of the importance of the supremacy of the sea for the prosperity of England, who from her geographical position is dependent upon the sea. Then Walter Raleigh, while the acknowledged favourite of Queen Elizabeth, made the English aspirations for maritime supremacy acceptable at court. Raleigh himself made the first attempts at colonisation on American soil, though they had no immediate or permanent results. The expeditions to Guiana which he undertook in 1595, 1597 and 1616 were the first really serious attempts by foreigners on the southern continent, not only to become possessed of the coast, but also to advance into the interior.

As in the north, they gave the impulse to foreign Powers to establish themselves within the Spanish-Portuguese colonial sphere. Fresh competitors with Spain had

appeared in the meanwhile, and these proved the more dangerous because their position as subjects of the Spanish Crown gave them opportunity of becoming acquainted with the conditions of colonial trade. When the first ships belonging to the Netherlands, which at that time had not yet revolted, brought their trade commodities

to America, the colonists recognised the advantage gained, and made every kind of representation to the Spanish Government, requesting it to concede to the Dutch, in the same way as to the inhabitants of the Canary Islands, the privilege of sailing straight to the colonies from Dutch ports, so making the call at Seville obligatory for only the return voyage.

The Council of the Indies would never agree to this, but it often permitted the Dutch as well as the German and Italian ship-owners and merchants to participate in the colonial trade, even after the general permit of Charles V. had ceased to exist, and the strong seaworthy Dutch hulks were often hired in the service of the king for the official voyages across the ocean. This commercial privilege was seriously endangered when the Protestant provinces rebelled against the Spanish yoke; but the attitude which Philip II. assumed in connection with this insurrection was of advantage to the Dutch. He still desired that only his own, though rebellious, subjects should trade with the South American provinces, and so he continued to grant a share in the Spanish and colonial trade to those shipowners and merchants of the northern provinces who had not been directly implicated in the rebellion.

Thus the Dutch were able, as before, to carry on their business openly and under the Spanish flag, both at Seville and in the colonies, although it was notorious that in this way the money gained flowed into the money chests of the rebels. Not until 1603 was this anomaly abolished—at any rate, in

part—when the Dutch trade was burdened with a special tax of 30 per cent. ad valorem, until it, too, was again with-

How the Dutch Enriched Themselves

drawn during the twelve years' armistice (1609-1621). In spite of this, the Dutch, besides carrying on a legal trade, soon attempted to enrich themselves from the colonies by illegal means. Sometimes they captured Spanish ships, while at other times, by evading the forced registration, they traded directly with America—partly

with the Spanish-Portuguese settlements, but more frequently with the Indians in the then still uncolonised regions.

The reason why they, like the English, turned chiefly towards the coast districts, between the Orinoco and the Amazon, was probably because they still believed the famous legend of El Dorado, who was looked for between these

The Elusive Treasures of El Dorado

rivers; though, with the practical disposition which is characteristic of their race, they did not forget to profit by an inferior but more certain gain while seeking for treasures. The actual activity of the Dutch as colonists in America began only with the renewal of the war with Spain. Then, in the year 1621, a West India Company was formed upon the model of the East India Company. However, in the first instance, it made it its business to plunder and damage the Spanish-Portuguese colonies, establishing at the same time a number of small settlements on the Oyapok, the Berbice and the Essequibo, which afterwards developed into the colony of Dutch Guiana.

The West India Company came more into prominence through the attacks upon Brazil, which was then still subject to the king of Spain. It succeeded, in a surprisingly short time—during the first thirty years of the seventeenth century—in gaining a firm footing in Olinda and Recife, and gradually the Portuguese were almost completely driven from the northern provinces of Brazil. By means of a clever policy of religious and international tolerance, the company succeeded in making the greater part of the old settlers accept the new order of things unconditionally, while it retained their services for the new community, which soon flourished and experienced no difficulty in resisting the Spanish-Portuguese attacks.

The colony was in its prime during the regency of Count Johann Moritz, of Nassau (1637–1644), who not only made

Brazil in its Prime

his residence, Moritzstadt, the centre for commerce, but also a home for serious scientific studies, such as had never previously been carried on elsewhere on American soil. The altered political conditions first had a disturbing influence when Portugal, separating from Spain in 1640, made a treaty with the Netherlands. The West India Company at first maintained its claim to its Brazilian conquests, and received the support of the States-general.

The eagerness for the retention of the disputed possession subsequently subsided, so that the Spanish colonial party, which had been considerably strengthened since 1640, succeeded in confining the Dutch more and more to the coast, finally even conquering the coast also, with the assistance of the Portuguese. The Dutch, in the treaty of peace in 1661, also officially renounced all their Brazilian pretensions for an indemnity. From that time attention was once more directed to the so-called savage coast of Guiana. The more ancient settlements of Berbice and Essequibo were ceded to England in 1814, but, on the other hand, the Netherlands possess up to the present day, in Surinam, a remnant of the land which had been colonised under the auspices of the West India Company.

The example which the Netherlands had set by the foundation of state-aided trading companies excited the attention of the rest of Europe, more especially on account of the great results of their East India Company. The French also founded a privileged trading company with the title of "The American Islands Company,"

almost simultaneously with the establishment of the West India Company. To this France owes her present West India colonies—Martinique, Guadeloupe, and her smaller dependencies—although her first possession was St. Christopher, which now belongs to England. Its fortunes were very variable before they finally came under the direct control of the state. The first company collapsed as early as 1650, and saved itself from complete bankruptcy only by disposing of its territorial rights to individual proprietors, who for a long time exercised an almost unlimited sovereignty, as had been the case in the Portuguese and North American capitanries.

Colbert then supported the system of privileged companies with great zeal, repurchased the West India Islands, and handed them over, with other territories, to the French West India Company, which also became ruined during the first decades of the eighteenth century, in consequence of political complications. Denmark and Sweden also, for a short time, acquired their colonial possessions in the Caribbean Sea by means of privileged trading companies, and in part endeavoured to retain them. Although, with the English, the impulse for colonial activity had been the result of personal and individual initiative,



"FROM SOUTHERN SEAS AND THE SPANISH YOKE"

The seventeenth century was a period rich in adventure. English seamen betook themselves to Southern seas on voyages of piracy, sometimes returning after amassing huge fortunes, when they escaped death at the hands of the Spaniards. In the above we see a returned sailor telling a group of merchant-adventurers the story of his capture and escape.

From the painting by Edgar Bundy, by the artist's permission

it was by the union of their forces into privileged trading companies that they also first achieved greater results.

The inevitable consequence of the mighty expansion of the Spanish colonial kingdom was that the Lesser Antilles, which were but sparsely endowed with natural treasures, soon became entirely neglected, though they comprised the land which Columbus first discovered in the New World. In the beginning of the sixteenth century they had been occasionally visited by Spanish slave-hunters. When the latter, however, no longer reaped any benefit through these expeditions, most of the smaller islands remained entirely uninhabited, and at the most served as hiding-places for the freebooters of all nations who lay in wait for the Spanish ships. It was no wonder that at a time when, through the example of the Dutch, the desire for colonial conquests had been aroused, these uninhabited islands should have been regarded as suitable for the purpose. Some Englishmen had, in 1605, already taken possession of the completely deserted island of Barbados, without colonising it at the time.

When St. Christopher had developed into a settlement in 1623, a speculator was also found for Barbados, and he induced the king to grant him the right of a "capitan" over the island and its trade. During the following years the English, French and Dutch took possession of almost all the Lesser Antilles. England's colonial possessions attained a further expansion in the time of Cromwell. The Lord Protector, in the year 1655, attacked San Domingo with an important array of military forces, and though he was defeated there, he was more successful in Jamaica, which became the permanent possession of the English. Until then Spain had regarded all other foreign settlements as a usurpation of her sphere of power, and it was not till 1670, when peace had been concluded with England, that she recognised the validity of England's colonial acquisitions. The same occurred in her relations with France during the subsequent conclusions of peace.

In spite of all, this was a period of out-lawry for the Antilles. The English and French had adhered to the unusual custom of procuring labourers for the settlers by transporting convicts, on con-

dition that they should do compulsory labour for the colonists for a specified number of years. Even though there were many among the number who had been convicted for political or religious offences, there was no lack of men of an infamous kind who made the worst possible use of their regained liberty. The renowned buccaneers and filibusters were recruited from their ranks, and, at the time when the European trading companies were almost completely ruined, and when the English also were entirely occupied by wars at home, they became pirates and were the terror of the Caribbean Sea.

Thus they once more revived the days of Hawkins and Drake by their daring attacks upon the Spanish colonial coasts as far as the Pacific Ocean. These homeless and lawless bands of robbers were composed of the subjects of all countries, Spain alone finding no place in their company; and while they were not in conflict with other nations, they pursued everything that was Spanish with the most deadly hatred. For this reason the enemies of Spain often made use of and protected them, but, for the

same reason also, the change in European politics consequent upon the accession of the Bourbons to the throne soon put an end to their doings. The filibusters then attached themselves to either the English or the French, according to the preponderance in force of either nation. Thus, the best elements among them were assimilated by the colonial settlements, while the incorrigible ones gradually fell victims to their trade or at last received well-merited punishment.

Spain's change of dynasty, from the Hapsburgs to the Bourbons, which kindled in Europe a universal conflagration of more than ten years' duration, did not bring to the colonies any more serious shocks. The latter were content to take upon themselves unconditionally the consequences of the events in the mother country, as they had done previously at the union with Portugal, as well as at its revolt, which was a proof that they had not even then awakened to a life of their own. During the first decades the policy of the new dynasty was entirely occupied with European concerns.

Not until various occurrences had led to the conviction that Spain was in need of reorganisation from within, if she was to occupy a place in the council of the Powers

SPAIN'S FIGHT FOR HER EMPIRE

compatible with her great past, did the colonies also assume a higher value in the eyes of the government. Although, owing to the pressure of circumstances, she became nationalised in a surprisingly short time, yet much of the French spirit was infused into the country which till then had been kept in an extraordinary state of isolation. Without the least doubt the revolution which the system of colonial administration underwent under Ferdinand VI. and Charles III. is essentially the direct product of French ideas. The

But the times when the caravels were considered the most suitable vessels for colonial trade were irrevocably past, and the enforced registration at Seville meant only delay and disadvantages for the larger ocean ships which had long since come into favour.

The transference in 1715 of the staple Indian trade to Cadiz, whose bay and harbour were able to shelter the larger vessels and fleets, was at any rate an adaptation to the actual requirements, though it actually meant no



A TYPICAL SCENE IN MODERN CHILI: THE FAIR AT A COUNTRY TOWN

altered conditions of trade and intercourse had in the meanwhile caused the mother country to suffer in as great a degree as the colonies from the restrictions which fettered the colonial trade. The first breach in the old system was still immaterial. Seville was not a suitable point of departure for an extensive trans-Atlantic trade such as had been developed in the eighteenth century. In this matter it is of no consequence whether or not the navigable water of the Lower Guadalquivir had really deteriorated from neglect.

real advance one way or the other. The monopoly of the trade with the Indies was soon seriously and generally taken in hand. The government felt keenly that it was an anachronism that the trade between the mother country and the colonies was still essentially confined to the fleets which traded, at the most, twice in the year. A sense of the value of time also began to manifest itself in the political sphere, quite apart from the fact that the increase of the colonial commerce had proved the impossibility

of meeting its requirements by the rare and uncertain arrival of the fleets and by having to encourage an illegal trade intercourse on an extensive scale, to meet the difficulty. For this reason it was regarded as a beneficial sign of progress on both sides, when monthly traffic from Corunna, by means of single fast-sailing vessels,

Spain's Expanding Commerce

was instituted between Spain and America under Ferdinand VI. Although these ships, in the first instance, were intended to meet the requirements of the government, they were also available for private trade as far as their cargo space permitted. This measure had scarcely any appreciable influence on the fleets, which had lost considerably in importance, but it had the beneficial effect of making it possible to satisfy the needs of the colonies upon a more peaceful basis, and one which would frustrate the smuggling trade of foreigners.

The excellent results which were thereby gained finally inspired the enlightened government of Charles III. courageously to break completely with all former systems. In 1774, the trade of the colonial provinces among themselves became enfranchised under certain limitations which aimed at the protection of Spanish produce, and thus a larger sphere of activity was opened up for the beginnings of a colonial industry. Four years later, 1778, the trans-Atlantic trade was also entirely reorganised. The trading of the fleets was suspended, and the Cadiz-Seville monopoly was annulled. In place of it, it was decided that the nine important harbours of the mother country should have the right to be starting-ports of the ships for the colonies, while on the other side of the ocean no less than twenty-two harbours were opened for direct traffic with Spain.

A new table of rates, wisely adapted to the circumstances, was at the same time drawn up, so that, even though the smuggling of the English and the Portuguese could not

The Rise of Buenos Ayres

be entirely suppressed, the essential part of the trading intercourse was once more placed on a legal footing. The markets which had long since ceased to meet the requirements of Portobello therewith also came to an end, and the traffic which had once followed the road from Panama, via Peru and Chili to Tucuman and Buenos Ayres, was now completely revolutionised. Buenos Ayres, owing to its natural situation, became,

with the new order of things, the specially favoured harbour for the trade of the southern colonies with Spain, as the ships intended for Chili and Peru, after running up to Buenos Ayres, now followed the route round Cape Horn, in order to reach the harbours of the Pacific Ocean. The province of Buenos Ayres until then had been the step-child of the government; under the new laws it was placed on an equal footing with the richest colonial province of Spain, because of the wealth of its plantations and sheep-farms.

The facilities offered to trade brought about an important revolution in commerce. The farmer and planter found it easier to procure a remunerative market for the product which could be drawn in unlimited abundance from the soil, owing to its luxuriant fruitfulness. The facilitated trade therefore reacted in a forcible manner upon agriculture and manufacture. The government under Charles III. was, moreover, eager to make up in every way for the persistent neglect of the past. Scientific expeditions were sent out to make exact surveys, not only of the coasts, but also of the entire surface of the coun-

Humboldt's Scientific Journeys

tries, and they were at the same time commissioned to examine carefully the mineralogical, botanical and zoological peculiarities of the New World. This was the origin of the great collections of colonial products in Madrid, the precursors of the botanical gardens and natural history museums, which to-day find a place in all our large cities and towns.

These researches have enriched science with many indispensable features, and we have to thank them for quinine, whose extraction has carried an industry far into those regions from which the European settler had not until then understood how to gain any advantage. How these events have influenced mankind, and what never-to-be-forgotten achievements of science they have matured, may be characterised under one name. By order of the Spanish Government, Alexander von Humboldt undertook his journeys of many years' duration through Central and South America. The scientific results of these travels inaugurated a new era in the history of geography and natural science, which he directed into those new channels where they have to this day remained, thus making the Spanish colonial policy one of the most enlightened of its time. KONRAD HAEBLER



INDEPENDENCE OF SOUTH & CENTRAL AMERICA

SPAIN'S COLONIES IN REVOLT

BOLIVAR, "THE LIBERATOR OF THE COUNTRY"

ONE of the weightiest reasons why Spain could not adequately support the action of France in favour of the British colonies struggling for independence was her consideration for her own colonies. The government of Charles III. could not maintain the plan of completely preventing intercourse between the colonies and the outside world, and for this reason it was doubly afraid of the influence which might be exerted in these colonies by the spectacle of Spain's aiding the subjects of another state to oppose by force the introduction of institutions which one had always maintained in her own colonies, and was extremely reluctant to abolish. Thus, though in alliance with France, Spain began war against England only in Europe

Spain's Lost Colonies

and in the West Indies, maintaining a most reserved attitude towards the United States. Spain had for long been convinced of the impossibility of excluding foreign influence from the Antilles, and had to a certain extent abandoned them to it.

In comparison with Spain's colonial empire on the mainland, they were of small importance, and their value decreased from year to year. The greater number of these islands had already freed themselves from the Spanish dominion, and those remaining became of importance only when Spain had lost all her possessions on the mainland. To these earlier losses was added, in 1795, that of San Domingo. When the repeated changes introduced by French revolutionary governments had led to a general war in the west half of the island which belonged to France, Spain did not disdain

to pave the way to the recovery of a part of the island by an alliance with the insurgent blacks. On making peace with the re-established republican government in 1795, Spain was punished for this by having to cede the eastern half of the

Antilles Surrendered by Spain

island to France. The Spanish Government, which did not place a very great value on the Antilles, did not find the sacrifice very difficult, and gave up the island. But the bones of the discoverer of the New World, which had till then lain in the cathedral of the capital, San Domingo, were not left in possession of the foreigner. They were ceremoniously exhumed, placed on board the frigate Descubridor, and taken to Havana. In the cathedral of that city they found a resting-place under the Spanish flag until 1898.

But the peace with France, bought by the sacrifice of San Domingo, was destined to have more momentous consequences for the Spanish colonial possessions. Spain renewed the policy of friendship with France which the Bourbon Family Compact had rendered traditional, and even went so far as to enter into an alliance with Napoleon when all Europe combined to resist his growing power. The immediate

The Spanish Fleet Destroyed at Trafalgar

consequence of this was the destruction of the Spanish fleet at the Battle of Trafalgar, October 21st, 1805. An English attack on the Spanish colonies in America immediately followed. Through information supplied by General Miranda, of New Granada, who had served in the French revolutionary army but had afterwards been exiled, the

English were led to believe that the Spanish colonies desired nothing more earnestly than an opportunity to throw off the yoke of the mother country and to establish themselves as independent states. It cannot be denied that, under the influence of the North American War of Independence and the French Revolution,

Unsuccessful Preachers of Revolt

a few hot-headed individuals were carried away by an enthusiasm for political liberty for which they were as yet quite unprepared. And these, of course, held the same opinion as Miranda; but the mass of the Spanish-American population had no sympathy whatever for such ideas, as the English learned to their cost when they acted on Miranda's suggestion and endeavoured to kindle the flame of insurrection in Spanish America.

Of all the Spanish coast-towns none was more suitable for such an undertaking than Buenos Ayres. The mouth of the La Plata had always been the seat of an extensive illicit trade. The authorities had been able to limit this only by relaxing the old strict trade regulations in favour of this harbour. Thus, Buenos Ayres, as the headquarters of the party of commercial revolution, made rapid progress, and there were, perhaps, within its walls more enlightened minds than in the other settlements. No harbour had profited more by the permission to trade unrestrictedly with all nations, which Spain temporarily granted to its colonies in 1797, in view of the permanent insecurity of the seas.

But, in spite of this promising situation, the British found no confirmation of Miranda's reports. After the conquest of the Cape of Good Hope, in 1805, a part of the British fleet, with 1,600 men, was sent, under General Beresford, to make an attack on Buenos Ayres. The Spanish governor had been fearing a British attack since the spring; but he thought its

The Changing Fortunes of Buenos Ayres

object would be, not Buenos Ayres, but Montevideo. He had accordingly collected the scanty means of defence available at the latter place. Thus it came about that not only the governor, but the whole population, lost their heads when Beresford landed two miles south of Buenos Ayres, moved next day into the suburbs, and the third day into the capital itself. But there was not the least sign of enthusiasm for the British rule

which Beresford forthwith proclaimed; on the contrary, a decidedly hostile spirit pervaded the community from the beginning.

While the town apparently submitted to its new rulers without much show of resistance, crowds of determined patriots were assembling in secret in the suburbs and on the neighbouring haciendas; and when Captain Jacques de Liniers succeeded, under cover of a thick morning mist, in leading a small body of troops across the river, these formed the nucleus of an attacking force which in its swift onset drove the British from the streets of the town into the market-place and forced them first to take refuge in the fortress and then to capitulate. Thus, Buenos Ayres was recovered by a blow as rapid as that by which it had been lost.

It is true that only a small portion of the British force had been destroyed; and the news of Beresford's initial successes had led to the despatch of considerable reinforcements, which arrived in rapid succession. In order to secure a safe base for their operations the British now directed their attack against Montevideo. Though heroically defended, the town could not hold out against the enemy's superiority in numbers and weapons. After the whole east coast had fallen into their power, the British considered themselves strong enough to recover Buenos Ayres from the patriots.

The latter, who had made Liniers, the saviour of the town, captain-general, were quite unable to face the British in the open; but when General Whitelock, forming his force into three divisions, attempted a concentrated attack through the streets on the market and the fortress, he was, after two days' fighting, so thoroughly defeated that in the capitulation which followed he had to agree to evacuate Montevideo and the east coast. The captured British officers made fruitless attempts to awaken the spirit of independence among the colonists; even so enthusiastic a patriot as Belgrano had but one answer for such suggestions: "Either our old king or none."

The history of the South American revolution is usually considered from a false standpoint. The simultaneous occurrence of revolutionary movements in almost all the Spanish colonies in the years 1809 and 1810 is generally supposed to indicate that the whole of South

SPAIN'S COLONIES IN REVOLT

America was ripe for freedom; that a longing for independence had everywhere taken possession of the minds of the people, and now, all at once, found expression throughout the continent. But at the beginning of the nineteenth century, despite the influence of the colonial war in North America and of the French Revolution, the idea of an independent South America really existed only in the heads of a few men who had grown up in the centres where foreign influence was most felt, and who, during their travels abroad, had become enthusiastic for modern ideas without comprehending the presuppositions involved in them.

At any rate, up to the year 1808 all their attempts to loosen the bond between Spain and her colonies met with the same fate as the attack of the British on Buenos Ayres. Such was Miranda's experience on two occasions, when, supported by the British, he landed on the coast of Venezuela, his native province. The first time he failed to gain a footing; the second time he succeeded in taking forcible possession of the town of Coro; but, in

Schemes of the Great Napoleon

the face of the indifference of the mass of the people and the hostility of the better classes, there was no prospect of success, and he was soon forced to give up the attempt at a rising. The revolution that occurred in 1809 was not due to a change in the opinions of the Spanish Americans, but to the state of affairs in Spain. When Napoleon, by the crafty comedy at Bayonne, had persuaded both Ferdinand VII. and Charles IV. to renounce their claims to the Spanish throne in order to create a kingdom for his brother Joseph, there arose in all the colonies, as well as in Spain itself, a hatred of their hereditary foe that neither the Bourbon succession nor the Family Compact could eradicate.

But the colonies maintained a quiet and expectant attitude. Even Liniers—who, though a Frenchman by birth, had been made Spanish viceroy of the province in return for having twice saved Buenos Ayres—dared not listen to the enticing proposals which Napoleon made him in order to secure the recognition of Joseph, because he well perceived the impracticability of any such plan at that moment. But had Napoleon succeeded in getting Joseph unanimously accepted as king in Spain, and in securing his recognition by

the other European Powers, it is probable that the change of dynasty would have proceeded as smoothly in America at the beginning of the nineteenth century as it had at the beginning of the eighteenth. It was only the political events conjured up by the "Dos de Mayo" (May 2nd, 1808) that aroused the spirit which led in

Spain Angry at Napoleon's Treachery

Spain to the Utopian constitution of 1812, and in the colonies to the separation from the mother country—a step politically quite premature. When Junot, in November, 1807, occupied Lisbon in order to force Napoleon's policy on Portugal, the Portuguese Court and Government crossed the ocean, protected by the all-powerful British fleet, chose Rio de Janeiro as capital, and gave Brazil a constitution on similar lines to that of the mother country, in order to bind it more closely to its head.

These events were much talked of in the neighbouring Spanish colonies, but exerted no immediate influence on their politics. Still, the colonies joined enthusiastically in the protest made by Spain against Napoleon's treachery and the attempt to force King Joseph on her. A spark of the national enthusiasm which accompanied the accession of Ferdinand VII. at Madrid, March 19th, 1808, extended to the colonies. The latter resolved, despite the French occupation of the mother country, to continue the government as then constituted on behalf of Ferdinand VII.

But the reports of the national rising, of the victory of Baylen, and of the capture of Madrid, were soon followed by the crushing news of the flight of the regency to Seville, of the formation of the general junta, and the subjugation of all Spain with the exception of Isla de Leon. A question here arose which was all-important for the future history of the colonies. The regency and the junta had proved themselves utterly incapable of defending the country against the national enemy, and their authority was unconditionally rejected by the few provinces that still were able to keep off the French yoke. Under these conditions, were the regency and the junta to be looked upon as representatives of Ferdinand VII., to whom the colonies owed loyalty and obedience? The obligation itself was disputed neither by the Creoles nor by the Peninsulars—Spaniards who

Succession of Spanish Misfortunes

had immigrated. However, the latter, to a still greater extent than the former, took as a precedent the example set them in the mother country. There every successful partisan who succeeded in snatching a small district from the French,

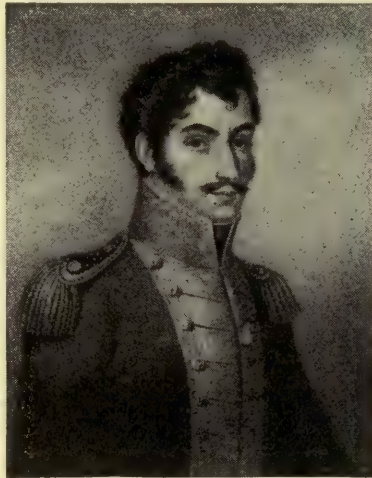
Unrest in the Spanish Colonies

or in defending it against their attacks notwithstanding the breaking up of all established authority, formed a junta of his townsmen and adherents, declared the old officials incapable, and replaced them by his friends. Similarly, in the colonies a feeling of discontent with the representatives of the old form of government spread among both Spaniards and Creoles. Led on by a desire for power, politicians who knew they had a large following rose against the viceroys and governors, and compelled them to renounce the authority which had expired on account of the captivity of their prince. They then formed regencies and juntas of their own, everywhere considering themselves the representatives of Ferdinand VII., and in all respects the legal successors of the Spanish officials they had displaced. Such was the course of events in Quito, in Caracas, in Buenos Ayres and in Mexico. Now, as was inevitable, the governors and their following soon came to the conclusion that it was by no means the will of the whole people by which they had allowed themselves to be intimidated.

They accordingly began a struggle against the newly established rulers, and succeeded either in gaining a complete victory, as in Quito, or in regaining at least a part of their official authority, as in the case of the governor of Buenos Ayres, who established himself in Montevideo. The abolition of the traditional legal authority brought with it the danger that all law would be disputed. The revolutionary movement had by no means always placed the best men of the people at the head of the various governments, and after an authority had once been set up by a tumultuous assembly, it was

natural that every party which had any power whatever over the populace also had hopes of seeing its own ambitions fulfilled, not immediately, but at any rate during the course of further developments.

The revolution had led more and more to the predominance of such elements as had been working for the independence of the colonies, at first unconsciously, but ever with more definite aim. The risings of 1809 bore the stamp of loyalty; the colonists revolted on behalf of Ferdinand VII. without understanding clearly who really represented his authority, and many a governor fell, as did Liniers, solely because he was suspected of being ready to recognise any established government,



BOLIVAR, THE GREAT LIBERATOR

Born in 1783 and dying in 1830, Simon Bolívar, by a series of remarkable and often brilliant campaigns, was largely instrumental in securing for the South American republics their much desired independence from Spain.

even were it that of Joseph Bonaparte. As time went on, American national influences made themselves unmistakably felt. The differences between the Creoles, or colonists born in America, and the "chapetones," or Spanish immigrants, had become more and more accentuated ever since the governments of Charles III. and Charles IV.—on account of some unimportant revolutionary attempts among the colonial-born population—had begun to maintain more strictly than before the principle of keeping in the hands of men born in Spain all offices to which power

and influence were attached. This exclusion from all important public positions was felt more keenly by the Creoles than were many other oppressive measures enforced by the mother country. Accordingly, when the regular course of government had once been interrupted, the Creoles saw no reason why they should not

aspire to more profitable and important positions. Thus, for example, in Buenos Ayres, the first overthrow of established authority was soon followed by a second, which aimed at giving the government a more national—that is, a more Creole—character. But still more happened in this stage of the revolution. The boundaries between the different Spanish colonies

The Initial Stage of the Revolution



VIEW OF CARACAS, THE CAPITAL OF VENEZUELA



LA GUAYRA, ONE OF THE TWO PRINCIPAL PORTS



GENERAL VIEW OF CARACAS, SHOWING THE PRESIDENT'S PALACE

SCENES IN THE SOUTH AMERICAN REPUBLIC OF VENEZUELA

were not always justified by ethnographic and economic considerations. This was especially so in the great provinces of Bogota and Buenos Ayres. There were great radical differences between the various districts. Though the governments that had sprung up so suddenly claimed the right of managing their own affairs, they

Civil War

in
Buenos Ayres

were by no means disposed to allow the scope of their authority to be limited by the principles on which they based their rights to power. Where conflicting elements had been held together by the power of the law only, it was but natural that upon the dissolution of the legally established governments they should demand consideration for their own interests. Thus civil war broke out in Buenos Ayres and in New Granada a few years later.

The chaos produced in the Spanish Cortes owing to the supremacy of doctrinaires could but create greater confusion in colonial relations. By the Spanish Constitution of 1812 the legal position of the colonies was completely altered. Though there was scarcely ever any close connection with the colonial delegates, crowded together in Cadiz and selected by party influence, and the districts they represented, nevertheless the doctrines concerning the rights of man proclaimed by the popular orators in Cadiz made dangerous progress among the colonial population, which was both politically and economically far less advanced than the people of Spain.

The revolutionary movement assumed the most serious character in Mexico. Here, too, the political changes in Spain had led to the overthrow of the government. But the movement among the Creoles was at its very beginning completely lost in a rising of the lower classes of the population, led by a fanatical priest. The latter threatened not only the Spanish authorities, but all who refused to

The Mexican Revolt

submit unconditionally to the rule of the populace, composed principally of native Indians. This in itself rendered a permanent success impossible. With a rapidly assembled army of nearly 100,000 men, the priest, Dionysio Hidalgo, leader of the fanatical masses, was able to attack and plunder the towns of Guanajuato, Valladolid, and Guadalajara; but, notwithstanding his great superiority in numbers, he was unsuccessful in his

assault on the capital, which Spaniards and Creoles united in defending. For his undisciplined army retreat was synonymous with dissolution. Though he received several severe checks while falling back, he was still able to rally a large force under his banner and again to take the offensive; but, as he was quite unable, with his horde of robbers and cut-throats, to establish any permanent government in place of the one he was opposing, his prestige rapidly decreased. During a second retreat he was betrayed to the Spaniards by his own officers, and shot.

The movement was not yet completely suppressed; but none of the leaders who placed themselves at the head of the Indian population in the different provinces after Hidalgo's death succeeded in making the revolt as dangerous as it had been at its beginning. The movement had only served to unite all conservative forces for the common purpose of defence, and had placed the struggle for liberty in so unfavourable a light that for years afterwards the province of New Spain was a stronghold of the royalists.

Victory

of the
Royalists

It was only lost to them later on, when, in blind self-confidence, they allowed a conspiracy to be formed which merely borrowed the name of the liberty gained by the other provinces after a hard struggle, and in reality only replaced the country's lawful self-government by an illegal administration.

During the Napoleonic wars the revolutionary movement persisted in only two places in the South American continent. After temporary successes on the part of the republicans, Quito and Chili fell back completely into the power of the royalists; in New Granada and the neighbouring colony, Venezuela, the efforts to win freedom attained a certain importance, while in the La Plata states they led to permanent independence. But the forces producing the various movements differed widely from each other.

The members of the junta of Creoles which forced the captain-general to resign at Caracas, April 19th, 1810, considered themselves the loyal subjects of Ferdinand VII. They accordingly sent envoys, including Bolivar, the future hero of the South American War of Independence, to England, the nation which was at that time giving the most valuable support to the adherents of the king in the



PANORAMIC VIEW OF LA PAZ, THE CAPITAL CITY OF BOLIVIA



THE CUSTOMS HOUSE 16,000 FT. ABOVE SEA-LEVEL, BETWEEN CHILI AND BOLIVIA



THE CATHEDRAL OF CAPACABANAS

SCENES IN THE SOUTH AMERICAN REPUBLIC OF BOLIVIA

peninsula. The object of this embassy was to agree with England upon a common course of action against the enemy of their country. The delegates returned with only conditional promises from the British Government; but at La Guayra they were met by General Miranda. Under the influence of this veteran in the

struggle for colonial freedom there was established at Caracas a republican government which preserved the rights of Ferdinand VII. in theory only. This government, it is true, was supreme for a time in the capital and in the central provinces; but even there it did not find the least support in the people, while the east, the west, and still more the great plains of the south—the llanos—were decidedly hostile to it. Thus it was that the royalists were soon able to proceed to the offensive. Their attack was so overpowering that Miranda was obliged to limit himself entirely to the defence. Misfortune produced dissension among the champions of liberty. Miranda was appointed dictator, but had no success; he was finally betrayed and handed over to the royalists by the very men who called themselves champions of freedom. Bolivar, also being entangled in the affair, years afterwards died in prison at Cadiz.

The instigators of this heroic deed fled abroad, but did not abandon their plans. As the junta of New Granada still remained independent, many Venezuelans—among them Bolivar—entered its service. Bolivar proposed anticipating the attack on New Granada, which the Spaniards threatened to take from Venezuela, by carrying war into the latter province. In accordance with his wish, the junta authorised him to wrest the border provinces Merida and Trujillo from the hands of the royalists. After succeeding in this in a surprisingly short time, he carried the war into the heart of the

Bolivar's Struggles for Liberty

country, without authorisation, thinking that the possession of the capital, Caracas, would decide the issue of the contest. With this step the war in the north assumed its special character. Simon Bolivar is the type of those pronunciamiento generals who until quite recently have played so great a part in the history of Spain, and a still greater in that of the Spanish-American republics. It may be granted that Bolivar was not quite

so devoid of conscience as many of his imitators; but no one can fail to see that the idea for which he fought had no existence apart from his own personality. By his fiery, florid eloquence he may often have succeeded in deceiving himself as well as those he tried to convince. In any case, he considered liberty and freedom, whose blessings he eulogised in the most extravagant terms, merely as foundations on which to build up his own fame; and he held himself more than justified in ruthlessly persecuting and crushing all men who would not accept freedom as inaugurated by Bolivar.

With the exception of a small part of the town population, almost all Venezuela was royalist, or at least heartily sick of civil war. Thus, as he advanced, Bolivar met sometimes with secret opposition, sometimes with stolid apathy; and only where his arms were victorious was he able to excite a fictitious enthusiasm for the ideal blessings he professed to be fighting for. He entered Caracas with theatrical pomp as liberator; but the

"Liberator of the Fatherland"

kind of freedom he brought to the Venezuelans betrayed its true character in his completely overlooking the civil authorities and assuming the powers of a dictator with the pompous title of "Libertador de la Patria" (Liberator of the Fatherland). But he failed to deceive even his immediate followers, chiefly persons whose interests were bound up in his own.

He was not the only one, even in Venezuela itself, who was working on this plan. In the extreme east, on the boundary of Guiana, another liberator, Mariño, had arisen; but instead of combining against their common enemies, the Spaniards, each of these saviours of the people desired nothing more ardently than the defeat of his rival, that he might then appear as sole emancipator and obtain undisputed supremacy.

Yielding to the pressure of the half-breeds, Bolivar had made the fatal mistake of declaring a war of extermination against the Spaniards; and all men were reckoned as Spaniards who did not willingly agree to all the demands of the so-called patriots. This savage warfare naturally led to reprisals on the part of the European population; but while they had on their side an excuse for retaliation, Bolivar, by his action, disgraced the principles he professed to be fighting for and did himself

SPAIN'S COLONIES IN REVOLT

great injury, inasmuch as he had far less power at his disposal than that possessed by his enemies. Thus the war assumed an especially bloody character. Murder and robbery, the weapons employed by both parties, set free the lowest passions and brought to the fore the worst elements of the population. Bolivar meanwhile did not distinguish himself as a general; he had no plan of campaign, and he had drawn up no constitution. The Spanish flag still waved over Puerto Cabello, the strongest point on the coast; battles were fought at Barquisimeto and on the Araure with varying results. Finally, Bolivar himself had to fall back upon Caracas.

Here the hostility of the Llaneros completed his ruin. It was in vain that he sought to give his dictatorship a legal basis by calling together a congress at Caracas; it was in vain that he now concluded an alliance with the dictator of the eastern provinces, fully recognising his authority. Even their combined forces could not temporarily withstand the ever-increasing troops of horsemen which the fierce Boves brought from the southern plains in support of the Spaniards.

**Bolivar
Branded as
a Traitor**

Matters had gone so far that far-sighted persons assisted the latter, in anticipation of their speedy victory. First Mariño, then Bolivar himself, was repeatedly and so severely beaten that his retreat degenerated into flight. When he reached the coast of Cumana, the Liberator had so little means of resistance that he fled with the ships that contained his war material.

When his compatriots had again assembled, and he endeavoured to rejoin them, he was branded as a traitor and with difficulty escaped the fate which he himself, under similar circumstances, had prepared for General Miranda. The result of the campaign of 1813 was that the whole of Venezuela fell once more into the hands of the royalists. The latter were now free to bring about a similar state of affairs in the republic of New Granada, which was divided against itself, and from which Bolivar had withdrawn the greater part of its military resources for the purposes of his Venezuelan enterprise.

In the south, too, the revolutionary movement had by this time exhausted itself. The rising in the La Plata states was at its beginning conducted in a spirit which contrasted very favourably with that characteristic of the Venezuelan

movement. The bulk of the people were, it is true, as indifferent to the revolution as in Venezuela; but there was a decidedly more progressive spirit among the middle and upper classes in Buenos Ayres than in Caracas. On the news of the dissolution of the government in Spain, the viceroy at Buenos Ayres was deposed. On May

**Viceroy of
Buenos Ayres
Deposed** 25th, 1810, a junta declared the province independent of the junta of Seville. But it continued to rule, as did the

governments that developed from it in the course of years, in the name of Ferdinand VII. There was even a party ready to invite to Buenos Ayres as regent Ferdinand's sister, the Infanta Carlota, who had married a Portuguese prince. The plan, however, which led to long and complicated intrigues in Rio de Janeiro and Montevideo, came to nothing.

The newly formed government considered that its first task was to obtain the recognition of its authority throughout the La Plata province; but in this it met with serious resistance. The royalists had chosen Montevideo as their headquarters; and the arrival of support from the mother country not only rendered the city impregnable against the limited means of attack at the disposal of the junta, but gave the royalists command of the bay and the mouth of the river flowing into it.

But little by little the supremacy of the Spaniards was limited to the town itself; their naval schemes were brought to naught by the aid of the Brazilians and British, who were friendly to the junta; and finally, when the Spanish ships had been defeated by the newly created rebel fleet, the fortress of Montevideo capitulated. But meanwhile there had arisen in the province of Buenos Ayres the general confusion that in all the colonies followed the abolition of legally constituted authority; and the east bank of the river La Plata also was only nominally under the rule

**Chaos in
the Spanish
Colonies** of the various governments that rapidly succeeded one another in Buenos Ayres. In reality the division was springing up which finally led to the establishment of the "Republica Oriental del Uruguay." A similar course of events had also occurred in another part of the old province.

In December, 1810, the junta of Buenos Ayres sent General Belgrano to secure the recognition of the new government in the district of Paraguay; but

the attempt ended in complete failure. Belgrano was enticed far into the deserted land before any enemy faced him; then at Paraguay he received a check that necessitated a dangerous retreat. It was only then that the liberal idea occurred to him of letting the province itself decide whom it would obey. Accordingly he con-

Paraguay Under a Ruthless Despotism

cluded with the defenders of Paraguay a capitulation at Tacuary which allowed him to retire without further injury being done. The consequence was that progressive ideas were disseminated so rapidly in the province that it took its fate into its own hands, and in 1814 chose as executive Dr. José Gaspar Tomás Rodríguez de Francia. His was a rule of force, more ruthless and bloody than had ever been seen on American soil; but it was an enlightened despotism. By destroying the power and wealth of the priests, and promoting agriculture and industry in every possible way, he rendered the state independent of the outside world. Thus the independence of Paraguay was rendered secure even after his death in 1840.

The government of Buenos Ayres had now to contend with movements not unlike that to which it owed its existence. It was repeatedly occupied in combating efforts at decentralisation in various parts of its territory even after the Argentine Republic had actually secured its independence. But Buenos Ayres also played an important part in the struggle against the common enemies of all the provinces, the Spanish royalists. The authority of the junta met with the most serious opposition in the district of Upper Peru, the modern Bolivia, which was then governed from Buenos Ayres. The first rising against Spanish dominion had taken place there in 1809, but had been easily put down by an expedition from Peru proper; and from that time the royalist influence was supreme. Accordingly, the junta sent out its first army against

Spaniards' Victory at Huaqui

this dangerous opponent. By a brilliant victory at Suipacha, General Balcarce forced the royalists back across the Desaguadero, the outlet of Lake Titicaca, which then formed a portion of the Peruvian frontier.

But this advantage was not maintained. After receiving reinforcements, the Spaniards gained a decisive victory at Huaqui, drove the patriots out of the Bolivian highlands, and followed them into the

Argentine Republic. But here Belgrano, who had been appointed general of the northern army, stopped the retreat, defeated the Spanish leader at Tucuman, and some weeks later, at Salta, compelled him and his whole force to lay down their arms.

All these battles were fought with comparatively small armies; and this explains the transitory nature of the successes attained. Neither party could really dominate the sparsely settled land; and the inhabitants had no leaning towards either side, but always favoured the victors. Royalists and republicans, even after a number of defeats, were soon able to collect an army of some thousands, and thus to renew the struggle; hence the manifold fluctuations of fortune in all the campaigns undertaken by the South American patriots against the Spanish royalists.

Belgrano, too, was not permanently favoured by fortune. On his advance into Bolivia he found the enemy reorganised at Huilcapuyo; and both here and at Ayuma he was so severely defeated that he had again to retreat to Jujuy. He was then for a long time unable to act on the offensive, and although the royalists did

Bolivia in the Hands of the Royalists

not advance into the Argentine Republic itself, all Bolivia was again in their hands at the end of 1813. By reason of a contemporary royalist victory in Venezuela, the cause of Ferdinand VII. never appeared more hopeful than when Napoleon opened the doors of his golden prison to the captive of Valencay and allowed him to return to the throne of his fathers.

During the war Spain had passed through many curious experiences; and the revolutionary trifling of the Cortes at Cadiz, which had introduced a Parliamentary system of government, was not without influence on the movements in the American provinces. But in Spain the people were as little ripe for freedom as in the colonies; and as the conflict of interests in the mother country was of far less advantage to the new government of Spain than it was to the colonial strivings for independence, the artificial constitution collapsed even before Ferdinand VII. had set foot on Castilian soil, and he lost no time in endeavouring to bring about a similar result in the colonies.

A great expedition, composed of twenty-five warships and sixty transports with 10,000 men, put to sea under General Morillo in March, 1815, to suppress the

SPAIN'S COLONIES IN REVOLT

last efforts of the colonial rising. The original intention was to disembark the troops on the La Plata. But since the fall of Montevideo there was no safe landing-place. Moreover, Buenos Ayres recognised Ferdinand, at least nominally, as its rightful ruler, while in the most recent phase of the war in Venezuela and New Granada an independent republic had been declared. Accordingly, Morillo received instructions to proceed to the subjugation of the northern provinces.

If this was assured, the way to the La Plata region always lay open to him through Bolivia. His first steps gave every promise of success. The island of Margarita, ever the refuge and hiding-place of the patriots of Venezuela in misfortune, was quickly subdued. In the whole of Venezuela there was hardly a troop of patriots that deserved the name of an army; Morillo's march through the province was a military promenade. In order to conquer New Granada, Morillo chose Cartagena as his first point of attack,

Morillo's Long Siege of Cartagena

but here he received a foretaste of the difficulties that awaited him. He had already discovered, on endeavouring to embark the Venezuelan army in the fleet, replacing it by Spanish troops for the protection of the province, that the hitherto loyal Llaneros deserted in crowds. Still he had an overwhelmingly superior force when he invested Cartagena by land and water. But the town offered a heroic resistance.

Morillo, who wished to avoid bloodshed as much as possible, tried to reduce it by hunger; but it held aloft the banner of independence for 108 days, although the Spanish general, losing patience, spared neither bombardment nor assault. Even when further resistance was impossible, the town did not capitulate; its defenders broke through the blockade during a storm, and the greater number of them escaped to San Domingo, to renew the struggle from there after a short rest. New Granada, indeed, did not defend itself with the courage of Cartagena. From Quito a second Spanish army was working its way up to meet Morillo, and when it approached Santa Fé there was in this province, too, no patriot

army to oppose it. But even Morillo, though victorious, felt that the ground he stood on was insecure. He therefore abandoned his original system of lenience, and meted out severe treatment to the rebels. But notwithstanding hundreds of sacrifices, he could not firmly establish Spanish rule.

Royalists Wherever the Spanish arms
Defeated on did not penetrate, rebellion
the Apure broke out anew. The island of

Margarita was the first to throw off the unaccustomed yoke; and on the llanos of Casanare an army of horsemen from the plains under the half-breed, Paez, responded for the first time to the cry of freedom and gained its first victory over the royalists on the Apure.

But the fierce warriors of the prairies spared the lives of their prisoners, and thus induced most of these to join them. After a renewed disturbance in Cumana, Morillo began to fear for the safety of Venezuela, and removed his headquarters, then at the foot of the Cordilleras on the east side, to Varinas. But as yet there was no apparent connection between the different risings. Finally, there landed in Margarita the old leaders and the defenders of Cartagena who had prepared in Haiti for a fresh struggle with the aid of the British and of the president of the negro republic. But Bolivar still showed himself to be no strategist.

While troops of horsemen scoured the llanos and kept the plains in a ferment, while his compatriots conquered in the east a district on both banks of the Orinoco, where they enjoyed absolute security, Bolivar remained in the charmed circle of the capital, Caracas, and in the autumn of 1816 attempted to advance on it from Ocumare with an insufficient force. But, most disgraceful of all, on the false report of a

defeat, he took flight on board ship, abandoning his followers to destruction. His reputation had sunk so low that,

Bolivar's banished a second time, he was compelled
Flight and to seek refuge in Haiti. However, he was
Return recalled a few weeks later, for of the leaders of the numerous bands none was held in so high esteem as he; and, above all, no one else was possessed of a definite and fixed political and military plan of campaign.





SCENES IN THE SOUTH AMERICAN REPUBLIC OF PERU

The illustration at the top of this page represents the cathedral at Cuzco, while the bottom picture shows the modern capital of Lima, with the stately cathedral in the background. Bolivar's statue at Lima is also reproduced.

Photos: W. H. Rau, and others



THE LIBERATION OF THE SOUTH BOLIVAR'S TRIUMPHS AND THE NEW REPUBLICS

IN the year 1817 the revolution began to gain a firm footing in the north. The idea of creating a safe base for the champions of independence on the right bank of the Orinoco had not originated with Bolivar; but he immediately recognised the importance of the plan. While the investment by land of Angostura and Guayana Vieja, which commanded the river, was attended by only a moderate amount of success, he succeeded, with the help of English sailors, in overthrowing the Spanish supremacy by sea, and in forcing the royalists to evacuate both places.

The Orinoco, and farther west the Apure, now separated the independent territory from the Spanish. Morillo had meanwhile been wasting his time in a fruitless attempt to reconquer the island of Margarita. He brought the coast as far as the peninsula of Paria under his power, but this had no great importance.

Bolivar's Unlimited Power

At this time Bolivar had with difficulty succeeded in getting his authority recognised by the leaders of the different revolutionary parties; he now felt the need of establishing his position on a more legal basis. Accordingly, in the autumn of 1817, he created a council of state and a supreme court of justice, and held out hopes of further political organisation. At the same time he declared his dictatorship a necessity, and, as before, exercised practically unlimited power.

The war still led to no definite result. Bolivar now advanced from the middle Apure against Caracas. He himself defeated Morillo at Calabozo, and Paez at the same time conquered San Fernando, the last bulwark of the royalists on the Apure; but these successes were counterbalanced by a series of unsuccessful undertakings which encouraged the opposition still secretly kept alive against the dictator. However, he was once more able to blunt the edge of the opposition. He won over the discontented generals by the way in which he

succeeded in providing them with troops, war material and money to renew the struggle; the politicians he disarmed by summoning a congress to form a constitution at Angostura. This congress was, in reality, a mere spectacular farce; but it

English Troops in the Fight for Independence

gave his dictatorship an appearance of legality by unanimously electing him president of the Venezuelan Republic. Of at least as great importance to Bolivar as this confirmation of his position was the arrival of a considerable number of trained English and German soldiers who had enlisted to fight for the cause of independence.

They formed a nucleus about which the brave, but less valuable, troops of the South American provinces collected, and from which they could receive their military training. The English legion played a prominent part in all later campaigns, and enjoyed Bolivar's confidence to such a degree as repeatedly to call forth expressions of jealousy from the South American patriots. For the campaign of 1818, Bolivar settled on a plan calculated to decide the course of events. Once before he had carried the war from New Granada into the plains of Venezuela to fight for the freedom of the former in the territories of the latter; now he resolved to strive for the emancipation of his fatherland from beyond the Andes.

This idea was suggested to him by the victories of José de San Martín, but, be that as it may, his success proved the correctness of his calculations. Even before the floods

Bolivar Surprises His Enemies

that during the rainy season render the llanos impassable had entirely subsided, Bolivar moved southward from the Apure, which protected his flank from the royalists, and crossed the Andes by the route taken by the traders of the Chibchas and the first conquerors of Bogotá. He did, indeed, suffer considerable losses before he reached a settled district at Sogamoso; but

his plan of surprising the enemy in the very centre of their sphere of power was completely successful. Everything now depended on his being able to gain a decisive victory before his opponents could summon their full strength. By rapid marches and countermarches he succeeded in so completely outwitting the hostile

**The Royalist
Army
Annihilated**

advance guard that he was able to seize the town of Tunja, and thus to cut off a large portion of his foes from the capital.

But the Spaniards, trusting to their superiority in numbers, tried to force their way back to Santa Fé. A decisive battle was fought at the bridge of Boyaca; it ended in the annihilation of the royalist army. The viceroy evacuated the capital and retired to Cartagena with the remainder of his troops, while the patriots took possession of Santa Fé de Bogota, and re-established the independence of New Granada. Bolivar created here, as in Venezuela, a new civil government at the side of his military dictatorship, and paved the way for the union of the two sister provinces into one republic under the name of Colombia.

The news of this victory reached Angostura, the temporary capital of Venezuela, just when Bolivar for the third time had been deposed as a deserter and banished as a traitor solely because there were others who were covetous of his power. But in the lustre of his recent victory he could treat such proceedings with contempt. The congress, doubly compliant from the consciousness of its offence, adopted without debate the proposal of the liberator that Venezuela, New Granada and Quito should be combined into one republic named Colombia, whose president would naturally be Bolivar, while in each of the three provinces there was to be a vice-president at the head of the civil administration. The constitution of the new state was to be framed in detail by a congress to

**The New
Republic of
Colombia**

meet at Cucuta for this purpose as soon as a truce could be declared. This soon occurred. The news that

reached South America in the summer of 1820 gave the situation a completely different aspect. The army which had been collected in the neighbourhood of Cadiz to give General Morillo the means of completely subduing the rebels had revolted; and as it felt compelled to find some pretext in justification of its action,

it adopted as its watchword the restoration of the Constitution of 1812. With this all who had fought for the restoration of the Spanish dominion since 1814 lost once more their legal basis.

The immediate consequence was a cessation of hostilities, leading the way to a peaceful understanding between the mother country and the colonies. But the latter had already gone too far: too large a number of the colonists had with all their interests been compromised by the revolution for an agreement to be possible under a constitution whose liberality, so far as the colonies were concerned, was known to be influenced by the desire of the whole Spanish nation for their continued dependence. The negotiations served rather to bring out the conviction that a return to the old state of affairs was impossible. Both parties took advantage of the truce to prepare for the inevitable renewal of hostilities, and the war broke out anew in the spring of 1821.

The supremacy of the patriots was so far assured in the highlands that Bolivar had now better prospects of success in attacking the economic centres of Venezuela, Caracas and Valencia, so often fought for with varying fortune. As matters then stood, these districts were the last stronghold of the royalists; even the west of Venezuela, hitherto loyal, had been lost to them; and apart from the coast towns, all of which, from Cartagena to Cumana, were in their hands, the Spaniards were masters only of the territory occupied by their forces.

At Carabobo, where Bolivar had once before gained a victory, the Spaniards awaited him in a position deemed impregnable; but the natives were now on the side of the patriots, and led a part of their army by secret paths to the right flank of the enemy, whose position was easily carried from this side. The victory was complete. The Spanish were forced to evacuate the central part of the province and to take refuge under the walls of Puerto Cabello, while Bolivar once again made a triumphal entry into Caracas, whose freedom from this time suffered no further attack.

The opening of the congress at Cucuta was almost contemporaneous with the victory of Carabobo. Now met for the first time in the history of the northern provinces a legislative assembly really possessed of power; and it showed itself

worthy of its calling by not submitting unconditionally to the dictator, as its predecessor had done. But it did not on this account undervalue the indisputable services Bolivar had rendered to the cause of freedom in the Republic of Colombia, and was far from accepting the resignation of all his offices and titles which he handed in to it, as he had done to its predecessors. Neither did it place itself unconditionally in his hands, but, with the best intentions, drew up a constitution which gave free scope to the ambition of the Liberator without placing him above the constitution.

His position as president of Colombia was confirmed by the congress. But it was laid down by law that he could not exercise civil authority in this capacity while at the head of the army in the field. To provide for this eventuality, a vice-president for the whole republic was appointed; and it was only in such provinces as he should afterward free from the Spanish yoke that Bolivar was to exercise dictatorial power. In other respects the new constitution differed widely from Bolivar's ideal. It

Colombia's President and Constitution rejected the scheme of an upper house, composed of life-members, which Bolivar had projected for Venezuela at

Angostura; nor did it make the presidency hereditary or tenable for life, but followed the example of the United States in limiting the tenure of office to two periods of four years. Hitherto no constitution had had a fair test, since every successful partisan had considered himself competent to overthrow it; so, to secure a practical trial for its own work, the congress passed a law forbidding any change in the constitution for the next ten years.

Bolivar submitted to the decisions of the congress of Cucuta. The fortune of war also seemed to favour the new republic. After a siege of fourteen months one of Bolivar's generals had captured Cartagena, and the loss of this stronghold rendered the royalists in the district about the isthmus powerless. Chagres and Portobello drove out their Spanish garrisons; and the isthmus provinces not only made themselves independent of Spain, but even asked to be admitted to the Colombian Republic. The last remnants of the army, with which Morillo once seemed to have brought

all New Granada and Venezuela to absolute obedience, now held only Puerto Cabello and Cumana. All danger had disappeared in the north.

In 1814 the cause of freedom in the southern theatre of war had stood on very slender supports. West of the Cordilleras the Spanish viceroy of Peru held sway over all the Pacific provinces from Cape Horn to the Gulf of Guayaquil and the tableland of Quito. The province of Buenos Ayres alone still held aloft the flag of freedom; and even it had suffered considerable losses of territory. While Bolivia had been brought back under the rule of the Spanish authorities, Paraguay in the north, and Uruguay in the east, had separated themselves from Buenos Ayres.

The aimless policy of its leading men was quite calculated to keep alive the strife in the province itself; and the Spaniards had reason to hope that the colonies, exhausted by suicidal wars among themselves, would fall an easy prey to them. The prospects of such an issue would have been even more favourable had not there come to the aid of the patriots at this time of internal dissension a man who, by the influence of his personality, became the rescuer of the threatened independence to a greater degree than even Bolivar.

José de San Martin did not return to his South American home in Buenos Ayres until the close of the Peninsula War, during which he had fought bravely on the side of the Spaniards. In Spain he had largely imbibed the liberal ideas then prevalent in the Peninsula, which found their embodiment in the Cortes at Cadiz. He, too, was inspired by a lively ambition, which expressed itself, not as in Bolivar's case by a morbid longing for the outward signs of power, but by an idealistic desire to distinguish himself in the service of his country, and to secure for it a brighter future. San Martin, like most of the far-

San Martin's Zeal for His Country sighted politicians of the South, was not a republican in the sense that Bolivar was.

He and others like him were convinced that Spanish South America was not sufficiently advanced either in politics or civilisation for a republican form of government like that of the United States.

What he had learned of republican institutions in the colonies of the North, and in part in the provinces of his own country, had roused in him an aversion from any

outward show of liberty instituted for the selfish ends of particular individuals, that at times stirred up civil war and at best only replaced Spanish tyranny by another as bad.

Even in Buenos Ayres San Martin found powerful influences which, in his opinion, worked against the true interests of the state. After he had had for a short time an opportunity of rendering his country valuable though modest services, partly on the banks of the La Plata, and partly in the provinces of the Bolivian highlands, the idea arose in his mind of placing himself in the service of freedom and of fighting not merely for the liberty of his country,

but for that of all Spanish America. The plan he formed for the attainment of this object proves his capacity as a general. He recognised immediately that the fate of all the southern provinces depended on the expulsion of the Spaniards from their stronghold, the Peruvian highlands on both sides of the Cordilleras; for, secure in their command of the Pacific, the Spaniards could at any time use the ocean as a base for attacks on the patriots by land in three directions. The shortest way from Buenos Ayres to Lima lay through Upper Peru (Bolivia). But this route was the most difficult on account of the extraordinary breadth of the line of advance, and because the Spaniards could always obtain supplies by sea. For this reason, San Martin chose another point of attack. In Chili, during the early years of the colonial rising, the cause of freedom had found numerous and enthusiastic adherents. The Spaniards had been compelled to employ a considerable force in order to bring back the province to its allegiance; and they would not have succeeded at all had not the despotic spirit of the pronunciamientos split the friends of independence into two parties. San Martin accordingly demanded from the government of Buenos Ayres means for collecting and arming the nucleus of a force to be employed first in

liberating Chili and afterwards to be used against the Spaniards throughout the southern part of the continent.

Internal dissensions had not yet so blinded the rulers of Buenos Ayres that they were unable to recognise the splendid prospects opened up by San Martin's plan for the cause of freedom; so, in accordance with his own desire, he was entrusted with the government of the district of Mendoza, on the boundary of Northern Chili, so that, without unnecessarily attracting attention, he might collect the means of carrying out his plan, and proceed to its execution at what seemed to him the proper time. San



ADMIRAL LORD COCHRANE

Admiral of the Brazilian fleet in 1823-5, he figured conspicuously in the struggle for independence of the South American states, achieving a series of successes against the Spaniards in their war against Chili, Peru and Brazil.

Martin possessed what was wanting in almost all the other champions of independence—a strictly methodical military training complete in all respects; a definite scheme harmonious from both a political and a military point of view, and conscientiously worked out in every detail; and an enthusiasm for the cause he served, which was exhibited by his personal readiness to make every sacrifice for it. He spent fully two years in collecting and training the troops for his campaign and in preparing the district in which he intended to begin operations; and when he gave the signal to march every detail had been foreseen and provided for so definitely that

he was able to proceed step by step with mathematical precision, and saw his efforts crowned by complete success.

In the autumn of 1816 San Martin received authority from the government of Buenos Ayres to lead his army across the Cordilleras into Chili, and from there to attempt to reconquer Bolivia. During the last months of the year extraordinary activity prevailed in the district of Mendoza, and the government did all that it could to furnish the expedition with the best possible equipment. On January 14th, 1817, San Martin divided his force of 4,000 picked troops of all arms, with a train of 10,000 mules, into two sections,

THE LIBERATION OF SOUTH AMERICA

and set out from Mendoza to cross the Cordilleras by the passes of Aconcagua and Putaendo. The two divisions were to meet at Santa Rosa de los Andes, 210 miles from Mendoza; the greatest height to which they had to ascend was about 12,000 feet. On February 8th the divisions arrived at the rendezvous within such a short time of one another that the royalist outposts at the mouths of the passes did not know from which direction the real attack was to be expected. A short fight forced them to retreat. The first bold step of the plan of campaign had been successful. But the army was still in the heart of the mountains, and it could neither adopt a proper formation nor gain support from a rising in the land until great distances had been traversed. San Martin knew that a rapid advance meant a victory half won, and that the shortest way to Santiago, the capital, was imposed on him by necessity. He allowed his exhausted troops to rest but a short time, and then advanced against the enemy, whose main force barred his way at Chacabuco. By a skilfully executed flank attack San Martin routed the hostile army in a few hours. Panic spread everywhere. The governor evacuated the capital, taking with him the remainder of the army, the treasury, the government officials, and many of the inhabitants of royalist leanings; and on February 14th the troops of the liberator entered Santiago in triumph. In the weeks following

the victory San Martin's character was put to a severe test. He had come to give the people freedom, and indeed all Northern Chili rose for the cause of independence as soon as the Spaniards had retreated. What had been done was now to be justified by a legislative body, and a congress was therefore called together at Santiago. But the new republicans could not conceive that a foreign general would fight for their cause for any other reason than to place himself at their head, and San Martin was almost unanimously elected president with dictatorial power. But he considered that he had taken only the first step on the road to fame, and refused the position unconditionally. He recommended the congress to appoint in his stead



JOSE DE SAN MARTIN

Fighting in the war of independence, he displayed great capacity as a general, and, defeating the Spaniards in many engagements, became the liberator of Chili and Peru.

General O'Higgins, a Chilean who had fought under him at Chacabuco; he would accept for himself only the position of commander-in-chief of the army. But the civil affairs of the republic had prevented the leader from following up

the enemy with the rapidity necessary for complete victory. The royalist party had recovered from its first panic; the viceroy of Peru had sent reinforcements; and as the Spaniards had complete command of the sea they were able to land the latter without molestation in the fortress of Talcahuano,



Belgrano



Sucre

HEROES OF THE WAR OF INDEPENDENCE

Manuel Belgrano was a commander of singular ability, his talents towering high above many of those who took part in the historic struggle for independence, while, after going through the entire civil war, José de Sucre won the last great battle in 1824 at Ayacucho, and in his honour the town of Chuquisaca was called Sucre.

which commanded the Bay of Concepcion. The cause of freedom was directly menaced when an attack on Talcahuano with an insufficient force failed, and on their retreat

the patriots were completely defeated at Talca, not far from the Maule. Fear and dismay spread even to the capital. The imminent danger finally roused San Martin from his inactivity. His force, continually kept in strict training, was undoubtedly superior to that of the enemy in military capacity, if not in numbers.

San Martin's Great Victory at Maipu

This fact, combined with his ability as a leader, led, after a long and fierce struggle at Maipu, to a victory so complete that even the more southerly provinces took heart and threw off the Spanish yoke. It was not San Martin's fault that he allowed a long time to pass after the victory of Maipu before again taking the offensive.

Immediately after the battle he hastened back across the Andes to secure the approval of the government of Buenos Ayres for his plan of campaign against Peru. It was now time for the patriots to create a fleet in order to dispute the supremacy of the Spaniards on the Pacific, and thus to secure the possibility of attacking Peru by sea. The rulers of Buenos Ayres, like the new government of Chili, were quite ready to approve of San Martin's plans in theory; but neither government was in a position to give effective aid to their prosecution.

In Buenos Ayres the federalistic loosening of old ties set in just at this time. The government had so much to do in providing for its own safety, which it saw, or imagined it saw, threatened from within and without, that for the time at least it could lend no aid to projects which were quite outside its sphere of action. All San Martin could obtain was a number of English ships that were being fitted out by the Chilean patriots to be used almost as much against the newly established government as against the Spaniards.

But this laid the foundation of a sea power which, led with unprecedented boldness by a Scotsman, Cochrane, did not a little to break the power of Spain at sea. For the army San Martin could do nothing in Buenos Ayres. He felt this the more keenly inasmuch as Chili at the same time placed considerable obstacles in his way. It goes without saying that the troops which San Martin had led across the Cordilleras and from victory to victory in Chili were attached to their leader with unshaken loyalty; the Chilean regiments, too, that he had formed and trained before

the battle of Maipu, followed him with blind obedience. President O'Higgins was also among the general's closest friends. But when once the danger from the royalists had been obviated, the majority of the Chilean patriots saw in the presence of the liberating army only an oppressive burden on the badly filled treasury of the young republic and a constant menace to republican freedom. These circumstances served only to spur San Martin to greater exertions for the realisation of his plan of campaign against Lima.

But, as it was at that moment impossible to obtain the means for this, he had no alternative but to arrange for the return of the liberating army across the Andes. This measure, which apparently was only the result of the difficulty in provisioning and paying the army, had also great political significance. It was calculated to deceive the Spaniards in Peru as to the direction from which attack was to be expected; at the same time it deprived the Chileans of all grounds for complaint against their Argentine deliverers, and also let them know how, in the absence of

Fleet of the Spanish Patriots

any effective protection, their existence as a state was threatened by the presence on their borders of the still numerous royalists. Finally the return of the troops to the Argentine Republic was calculated to convince the government of Buenos Ayres that the maintenance of the army, even when condemned to inactivity, would prove almost as great a burden to the state as the moderate demands made by San Martin in order that he might be enabled to fight for the cause of independence in the enemy's territory.

These calculations were justified, at least in part, in all directions. The newly formed fleet of the patriots under Admiral Cochrane made a venturesome attack on the Spanish ships at Callao, and, though not in a position to do much damage to the enemy, it proved that the latter were so disturbed and weakened that a campaign undertaken from the coast in accordance with San Martin's plan would have every prospect of success. O'Higgins and other friends of the liberator obtained a freer hand, despite the Chilean patriots, and proceeded to further his plans; they succeeded in procuring for him an invitation to lead his troops once more across the Andes into Chili, in order to prepare for an attack on Peru with the help of the

Spain's Sea Power Challenged

THE LIBERATION OF SOUTH AMERICA

fleet. Nor did San Martin's military policy remain without effect on the people of the Argentine Republic; he succeeded in winning approval for his schemes, and he was even assisted to some extent with money and war material. Nevertheless, it was from Buenos Ayres, and at the last moment, that the greatest danger threatened him; and the premonition that this must inevitably destroy every prospect of his plan being realised finally drove San Martin to take the risk of breaking the bridges behind him and plunging boldly into the unknown, though his equipment was defective and he had no security for the future.

The party of patriots, which claimed that the authority of the government of Buenos Ayres extended over the whole of the region formerly included in the Spanish colonies province, had found itself compelled to resort to force almost from the beginning. In Paraguay, however, it had not attained its object; on the east bank of the La Plata, in Uruguay, it saw itself driven to hazardous concessions; and even in the north-west the victorious army had had to fight republican opponents as well as Spanish royalists. The opposition in this last quarter finally increased to such an extent that the government believed its rights could be maintained only by force. Thus it was that San Martin, after making preparations for his advance into Peru, received orders to return and protect the government from danger within the republic itself.

San Martin was among the very few patriots who saw clearly that a quarrel as to a greater or less degree of liberty meant the death-warrant of the new republics, if it should degenerate into civil war before the Spaniards had been finally and completely driven from South American soil. He and others of like mind were undoubtedly republicans at heart; and if, notwithstanding, they repeatedly attempted, at different phases of the struggle for independence, to give the newly formed states a monarchical form of government, it was only because they had come to the conclusion that even among the leaders the great majority were as yet quite unfit for a true republican constitution. They saw that when once independence was secured, the land would benefit more by a strong central power on a liberal basis—an enlightened despotism

—than by unbridled freedom. San Martin accordingly declared plainly to the government that even his own army, which under stricter discipline would yet be a still more powerful factor in the struggle against the enemy, would, if involved in the civil war, inevitably fall a prey to demoralisation, and in the long

run would be no more a protection to the government than the troops and the population on which the republic had hitherto relied. He also entered into direct communication with rebel leaders that he might induce them to use their forces in the service of their country, and to postpone the struggle over political opinions until their common enemy had been overcome.

As this noble warning fell on deaf ears, and the government, shaken to its very foundations; kept repeating more insistently than ever the order to return to Buenos Ayres to its support, San Martin finally decided to renounce his allegiance to it. In an address to the army he called on his soldiers to turn their backs on the civil war, and to seek glory and honour in the struggle against an enemy from whom they had already conquered a flourishing province. The appeal was enthusiastically received. A few days later the army assembled on the other side of the Cordilleras; the Chilean government took it under its protection; and in Valparaiso the Chilean-Argentine expedition, which was given the name "Ejército Libertador del Peru," embarked in Cochrane's fleet.

San Martin hoped that the population of Peru would revolt for the cause of independence, as the Chileans had done, as soon as the patriot army afforded it a point of support against the Spaniards. He had accordingly taken advantage of the last raid made by Cochrane's fleet to distribute thousands of copies of a proclamation along the coast. But on landing at Pisco he discovered that the Peruvians maintained an attitude which, if not actually hostile, was as indifferent as that of the Venezuelans had been towards Miranda's proclamation. Besides this, immediately after his arrival news was received from Spain that the rule of the Cortes had been restored, and that this body had strongly recommended the Spanish governors to enter into negotiations with the champions of liberty. These negotiations,

**The Noble
Appeal of the
Great Leader**

**San Martin
Opposed to
Civil War**

**Liberating
Army
in Peru**

which, on account of San Martin's well-known opinions, were begun with far better prospects of success than those between Morillo and Bolivar in the north, made very slow progress; but this did not displease either party. San Martin hoped that time would thus be gained for a movement to arise among the people in favour of the liberating army.

The signs of any such movement had at first been surprisingly small, and it was against San Martin's principles to force upon the country the necessary change in its system of government. The royalists, on the other hand, considered that every day's delay was a distinct advantage to them, and would weaken the little

San Martin's operations. Thus the Spaniards saw themselves shut in at Lima before they had once come into contact with San Martin's army. Since the threatened attacks from the coast and from the mountains rendered his position untenable, the viceroy finally resolved to abandon the capital. This was no very severe loss, as without the possession of the port of Callao, which the royalists still held, Lima possessed a moral rather than a strategic value.

San Martin did not display the activity in Peru that had been expected from him; but there were numerous and weighty reasons for this. He could not overcome his conviction that the mass of



THE MAIN STREET IN ASUNCION, THE CAPITAL OF PARAGUAY

expedition, which was disproportionately small for the important task it had undertaken. The landing at Pisco had the double object of finding out the disposition of the people and of sending an expedition into the Peruvian highlands. When these objects had been attained the troops were again embarked and landed at Huachi nearer the capital. The movement now began to make progress. The patriots came into touch with the enemy, even in the coast districts; and a Spanish regiment, in which the liberal tendencies then dominant in Spain had strongly developed, came over to them. Good news was also received from the highlands; the districts of Huaylas, Truxillo, Piura and others, formed patriotic detachments to support

the people had no sympathy for the cause for which he was fighting. As long as he had to rely solely on his small command he could not risk a vigorous attack on the enemy, who outnumbered him many times. For him defeat meant annihilation; and even a victory on the field of battle implied no real progress. Besides this, his little force was weakened by the unhealthy climate of the coast; and finally the negotiations, conducted with great diplomatic ability on the Spanish side, gave hopes that the object in view could be attained without bloodshed. None the less, San Martin's waiting policy came in for much blame. Thus the evacuation of Lima occurred at the right time for impressing on his opponents the



GENERAL VIEW OF THE CITY, SHOWING THE HARBOUR IN BACKGROUND



THE PALACE OF THE URUGUAYAN GOVERNMENT



CHURCH OF THE MATRIZ, ONE OF THE CITY'S FINEST BUILDINGS
MONTEVIDEO, THE COSMOPOLITAN CAPITAL OF URUGUAY

necessity for patience, though it was not, as soon became evident, accompanied by the important political and strategic consequences expected from it by the patriots.

The latter had hoped that the fall of the capital would be followed by a rising throughout the country, but in this they were once more deceived. They them-

**San Martin
Protector
of Peru**

selves could not actively follow up the Spaniards, whom the Peruvians allowed to retreat to Cuzco unmolested. Here the connection with Bolivia permitted the royalist army to be reconstructed in a very short time; and it was even put in a condition for taking the offensive. San Martin had not dared to entrust the future of the country to a congress at Lima; for it was by no means certain that such an assembly, if it did not degenerate into a mere farce, would not reject the aid of the liberators. Thus he had to content himself with declaring the independence of Peru without the sanction of the people, and with exercising an almost dictatorial power under the title of "protector." But the new government received little support from the people, and found itself in a position of constant danger, threatened both by Callao, the bulwark of the royalists, and by the army advancing to the attack from Cuzco, which far outnumbered its own.

The situation became worse when the royalists gained a victory at Ica and for a short time menaced the safety of Lima. Politically this event was a deliverance. What success had failed to do, necessity accomplished: the population of Lima rose for the cause of freedom and willingly attached themselves to San Martin's forces. The fruits of this movement were immediate victories. Callao had long been invested both by land and water, and the advance of the royalists was for the special object of repossessing it. San Martin allowed the Spanish Army to approach the im-

**The Spanish
Army Forced
to Retreat**

mediate neighbourhood of the fortress; but there he surrounded it from all sides; and only a retreat, much resembling flight, saved it from the fate of being involved in the capitulation of Callao, which was now inevitable.

Nevertheless, San Martin saw the impossibility, with the limited force at his disposal, of securing the province against renewed attacks of the Spaniards from the highlands. As the struggle for

independence had always seemed to him a common cause of all the colonies, he lost no time in seeking to come to an understanding with Bolivar as to a mutual plan of campaign, since united action was more likely to lead to swift and sure success than the separate operations, which had almost come to a standstill in both theatres of war. The two heroes of the War of Independence had for some time been in communication with each other, but had not got beyond the exchange of expressions of reciprocal good will.

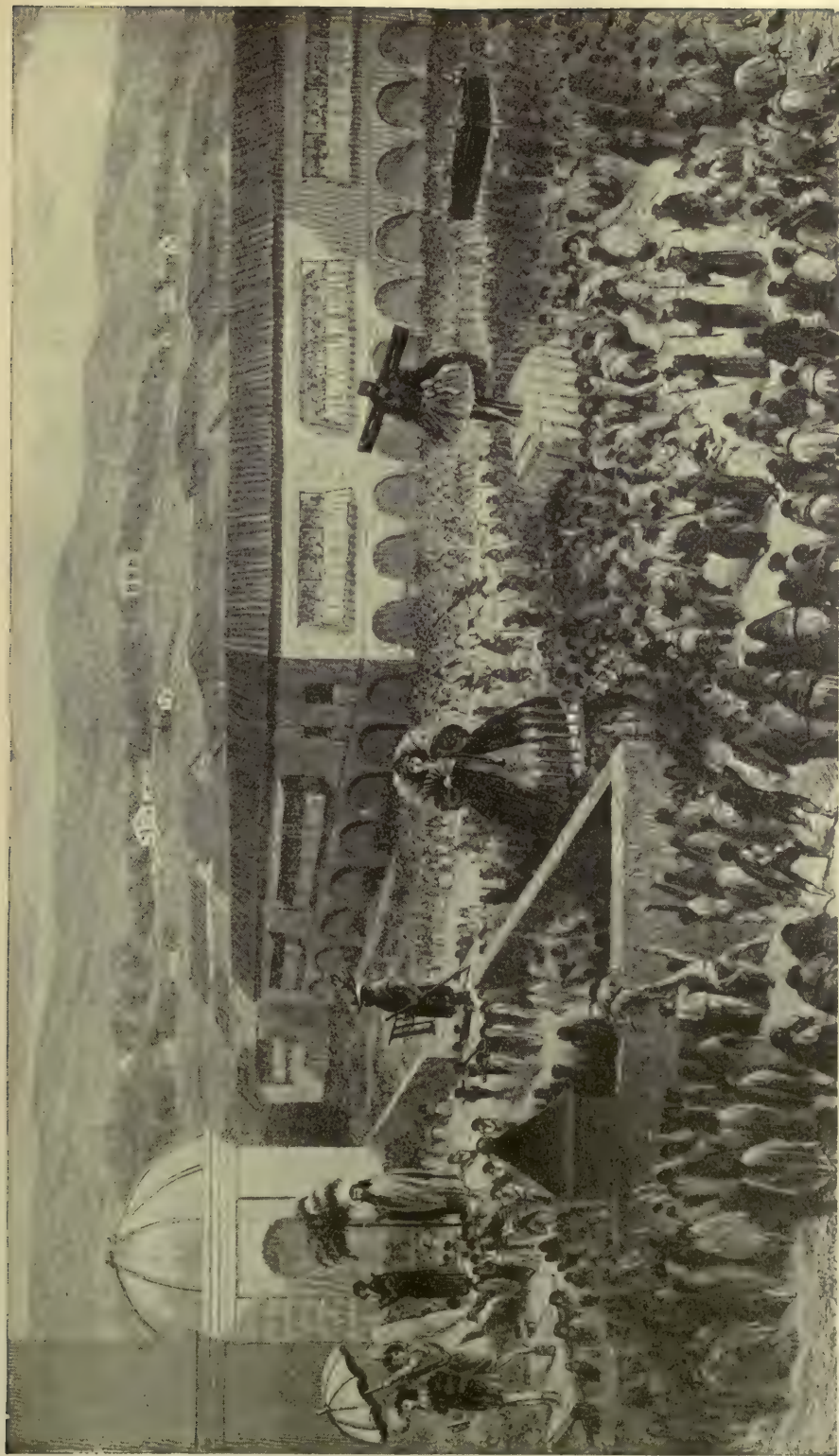
The immediate occasion of this closer understanding was the circumstance that the harbour of Guayaquil, on the boundary between Peru and Quito, had risen for the cause of freedom, and had been placed by its junta under the joint protection of the two liberators. The object of the patriots of Guayaquil in taking this step was to avoid all dispute as to what province their town belonged to; for though it was politically a part of the province of Quito it was geographically situated in the viceroyalty of Peru, with which its administration had been closely connected.

**Strongholds
of the Spanish
Royalists**

Cochrane's Pacific fleet had rendered the inhabitants of Guayaquil no little help in attaining their independence; and Bolivar, too, had sent a small force to their aid. No one could then foresee that, in spite of the joint protectorate, consequences by no means favourable to the cause of freedom were to follow.

The victory of Boyaca had not led to the result Bolivar had expected from it. The Spanish flag still waved over Quito, and the fanatically royalist population of the provinces Popayan and Pasto placed insuperable obstacles in the way of the patriots' advance. It was this that caused Bolivar to agree to send a division of his army under Antonio José de Sucre to Guayaquil, in the hope that an attack on Quito from the east would divert the attention of the royalists and facilitate his advance from the north. But Sucre's first campaign was a failure.

After winning two battles, which caused him to under-estimate the strength of the enemy, he suffered a severe defeat at Huachi, the consequences of which he avoided only by skilfully arranging an armistice. Bolivar's attack also failed in its object. He had hoped to slip by the royalist positions at Pasto without attracting attention, and to seize Quito from the



A STRANGE PERUVIAN FESTIVAL: THE ANNUAL PROCESSION OF THE CHRIST OF THE EARTHQUAKE AT CUZCO

A famous annual procession of Cuzco is that of the Christ of the Earthquake, which is held every Easter Monday. The dawn of the day is heralded with joyous peals of bells from cathedral and churches, and before long a crowd of 10,000 Indians has taken possession of the square. In the gaudily draped balconies are the rich and wealthy, who, as the crucified Christ is borne by on a litter, throw baskets of flowers at the image. The first figure in the procession is that of San Blas, over whom an angel with folded wings holds a rose silk parasol. The second image is San Benito, the third is San Cristoval, and the fourth San José. Next comes the Virgin Mary, strangely arrayed in Elizabethan costume.

north-east; but the enemy barred his way at Bombona and forced him to battle. He emerged victorious from the contest, but his plan became known to the enemy and was thus rendered impracticable. He was once more compelled to postpone the conquest of Quito, and retreated to the north-west. The liberators of the north

Quito in the Hands of the Patriots

were freed from this embarrassing situation by San Martin's help. The latter had repeatedly suggested that he and Bolivar should take common action against either Quito or Cuzco, since in this way only would it be possible for their armies, each too weak for its own task, to overthrow the Spaniards in one of their strongholds.

But Bolivar, as usual, could not make up his mind to share the laurels he expected to win with an ally of equal rank, and constantly put off decisive action. Sucre, however, had little or nothing to risk in this respect, so he willingly accepted San Martin's unselfish offer to assist him in undertaking an offensive movement against Quito by handing over to him a part of his troops. With 1,500 Peruvian soldiers, and about the same number of his own, Sucre, in February, 1822, made an incursion into the districts of Loja and Cuenca, which had hitherto been held by the royalists.

When the latter gave him an opportunity of stopping their retreat at Bombamba he gained a decisive advantage, chiefly with the aid of his cavalry. Then, by a bold outflanking movement, he forced them to a decisive battle on the slopes of the volcano Pichincha. Here, again, the fortune of war favoured the combined patriots of the north and south, and Quito fell into their hands as the prize of victory. With this the back of the Spanish resistance in Ecuador was broken; and Bolivar could now hasten up to deck himself out with the laurels gained under the leadership of his subordinate. In the

Bolivar's Unbounded Ambition

hope that the victory in Quito would be followed by a second united campaign against Cuzco and Bolivia, San Martin arranged for a meeting with Bolivar at Guayaquil. But this was not the way in which Bolivar's unbounded ambition could be satisfied.

There was some excuse for his incorporating Quito in the Colombian republic—though it had been conquered only by reason of the energetic support of the

Peruvian-Chilian army—for Quito had always formed a part of New Granada. But the case of Guayaquil was not so simple; under the Spaniards there had been doubts as to which province it belonged to, and now it had set up an independent government. San Martin included this among the questions to be discussed at his meeting with Bolivar. But in Bolivar's mind the matter was already legally settled in favour of Colombia, and he actually put his idea in force. He did not wait for the appearance of his rival, but, to the surprise of all, suddenly appeared in Guayaquil and settled the matter with one word of command. While still on the way, San Martin received the news that Bolivar would be glad to receive him, as his guest, on Colombian soil.

Such circumstances as these did not augur well for the meeting between the two liberators in Guayaquil, and the fears entertained proved only too well grounded. The mystery surrounding their negotiations has never been fully cleared up; but so much is certain, that the two generals were unable to come to an understanding. To the astonish-

The Two Liberators in Conference

ment of all concerned, San Martin suddenly departed from Guayaquil; nothing more was heard of a common plan of campaign; and San Martin now resolved on a step which he had not indeed contemplated for the first time at Guayaquil, but which was certainly hastened by the result of his interview with Bolivar.

After the victories of Callao and Quito, San Martin had arranged for the election of a congress to draw up a constitution for Peru. He had also the intention of resigning all his extraordinary powers in favour of this body. The latter step, however, was taken in accordance with certain concealed objects. San Martin did not believe in the possibility of establishing vigorous republics in the Spanish-American provinces. He saw the whole of the north in the hands of a dictator who, if enthusiastic for the cause of liberty, was nevertheless consumed by vanity and a thirst for fame. In the south he saw the attempt at a republican form of government in Chili and in Buenos Ayres on the verge of ruin, and the old provinces more or less involved in the general dissolution. On the other hand, the resistance of Peru had shown him how firmly monarchical sentiments were rooted in the hearts of

THE LIBERATION OF SOUTH AMERICA

the people; and the introduction of a constitutional monarchy into the neighbouring empire of Brazil, which was accomplished without any serious political disturbance, furnished an additional argument in favour of this form of government. San Martin was in complete agreement with those of his countrymen in the Argentine Republic who had aimed at setting up a Spanish-American empire with a younger prince of the royal house at its head, at first through the agency of the Infanta Carlota, but afterwards through independent effort. He now worked, both

monarchic proposals. His character as little fitted him to play the part of Providence, after the manner of Bolivar, in the state he was at the time directing, as to take part in the inevitable civil war.

Thus he came to the conclusion that the only course open to him was to retire from public life. He seized on this way of escape the more readily because he was firmly convinced that, after his retirement, Bolivar's ambition would leave no stone unturned to complete the work of liberation and to add Peru and Bolivia to his Colombian republic. Thus San Martin



CELEBRATING THE BIRTHDAY OF AN ARGENTINE PRESIDENT

This illustration shows a review of troops in the Government Square at Buenos Ayres on the occasion of the seventy-first birthday of Señor Manuel Quintana, who assumed office on October 12th, 1904, and was, perhaps, the most popular president which the Argentine Republic has ever had. An admirer of Great Britain, Señor Quintana strove with considerable success to encourage commercial relations between the United Kingdom and the South American republic.

in America and in Europe, by means of an ambassador sent across the ocean for this special purpose, at a scheme for establishing a great South American constitutional monarchy, in opposition to the South American Republic planned by Bolivar; and he even hoped to see the Republic of Colombia incorporated in it. The meeting with Bolivar dashed all his hopes to the ground. Though the European outlook seemed to point to the rapid fulfilment of his plan, he found the general opinion in Peru, as well as in the allied states, decidedly unfavourable to his

resigned all his offices and titles into the hands of the congress that met on September 20th, 1822. Some of the delegates considered this a mere theatrical trick, such as Bolivar was wont to indulge in; others expected that he would at least continue to act as commander-in-chief; but he departed suddenly and secretly from Peru, and, disgusted with his experiences in Chili and the Argentine Republic, retired to Europe. Here he spent the remainder of his life in seclusion. San Martin's prophecies were largely justified by the course of events. If Bolivar did not

immediately take his place in Peru, it was because of the strong current of public opinion which regarded his devouring ambition with strongly marked distrust. But circumstances proved to be more powerful than the weak government which had undertaken the guidance of Peru. Their contemptuous rejection of

Peru Lost to the Patriots

Bolívar's proffered aid deprived the Peruvians of a great part of their trained troops, and the military expeditions they attempted on their own account led to two severe defeats at Torata and Moquegua. Finally, they had no other resource than to beg humbly for the aid they had once refused to accept, and to appoint the president of the united Republic of Colombia dictator of Peru. But this step led to the outbreak of civil war in the latter country. Even a part of the army revolted against being handed over to Bolívar; Callao again raised the Spanish banner above its impregnable walls; and Lima was once more compelled to open its gates to the royalists. The immediate consequence of calling in Bolívar was that Peru was lost to the patriots.

Reorganising his army among the mountains of the north, Bolívar renewed his campaign in August, 1824. His first operations were favoured by fortune. He moved toward the south, through the valleys between the two chains of the Cordilleras, screened by swarms of guerrilla warriors, who appeared from all sides on the approach of the patriots. South of Pasco, on the Lago de Reyes, he came in touch with the enemy, who had advanced to meet him. The Battle of Junín was, in fact, a great cavalry engagement, in which the royalists were at first completely successful. But in their eagerness to pursue the retreating enemy they rushed by a body of Bolívar's cavalry without dispersing it. This body attacked them in the rear, riding down their scattered

Bolívar's Great Victory Over the Royalists

ranks; and the Spanish success was thus converted into a disastrous defeat. The royalist leader, who thought that victory was in his grasp, was forced to fall back into the neighbourhood of Cuzco, a distance of 466 miles.

Bolívar was unable to move so rapidly, and when he again met with the enemy, on the Apurímac, the rainy season set in and put an end to operations. At this time Bolívar's dictatorial powers were considerably

curtailed by the Congress of Colombia. He therefore resigned his position as commander-in-chief in favour of Sucre and returned to the northern provinces. From there he still directed military operations as long as communications could be maintained. At the end of November the Spaniards seized a position between Sucre and his base, so that he had no alternative but to fight. The royalists considered themselves sure of victory: Sucre was compelled to retreat by forced marches in order to avoid being cut off completely, and suffered considerable losses in the days preceding the battle. But neither he nor his army lost courage, however threatening the situation; they knew that the safety of more than one expedition depended on their fate. On December 9th, 1824, the Spaniards—unfortunately for themselves—accepted the opportunity of joining battle repeatedly offered to them.

Sucre had chosen his position on the plain of Ayacucho with the greatest skill, and he directed the contest, which was almost entirely a hand-to-hand struggle, with extraordinary military talent. The victory was complete. The last

South America Achieves Independence

royalist army was entirely dispersed, and fourteen Spanish generals, with the few troops remaining on the field, laid down their arms. The independence of South America, fought for at Chacabuco and Maipo, Carabobo and Boyaca, was rendered certain at Ayacucho.

The surrender at Ayacucho was accepted by almost all the military posts still in possession of the royalists. Sucre did not disgrace his victory by unnecessary bloodshed, and an honourable capitulation secured for the defenders of Spanish claims an unmolested withdrawal from the country. Owing to his clemency he secured more than he could ever have expected.

Only in Callao did the Spanish commander continue his opposition for almost a year longer, although hostilities had now become practically without object; for not only had the Spanish troops evacuated the land, but even the fleet had given up the hopeless contest in American waters. As a matter of fact, independence had been won at the beginning of the year 1825; the negative part of the war for freedom was over. Nothing further was necessary except to secure positive recognition for the new states and to constitute them into actual political structures.

AMERICA



INDEPENDENCE OF
SOUTH AND
CENTRAL
AMERICA III

THE INDEPENDENT SOUTH SINCE THE REVOLUTION THE NEW REPUBLICS IN PEACE AND WAR

AS might have been expected, the Spanish colonies, even during an early stage of their revolt, had applied for the support of the United States of North America, whose example they considered themselves to be imitating in their struggle for liberty and independence. There, however, they met with a distinct refusal. The United States, whose own political status was as yet by no means firmly assured, declared themselves determined to hold aloof from any interference which might entangle them with other Powers.

Various deputations, which in the course of the year made applications to England, met with a similar reply. There can be no question that both the United States and England were benevolently disposed towards the Spanish colonies, and they gave evidence of this feeling by not taking strict measures for preventing the despatch

Pan-American Congress at Panama of private support from their harbours to the insurgent states. England, however, declared that the struggle of the colonies against the mother country was an internal matter in which, owing to her own close relations with Ferdinand VII., she was the less in a position to interfere. Thus the only open support given to the combatants came from the negro republic of Haiti, and was accorded the more readily owing to the fact that the revolted colonists had everywhere proclaimed the freedom of negro slaves in order to fill with them the thinned ranks of their own regiments, and had made slavery illegal. They did not suspect that by this action they were forfeiting the friendship of their nearest neighbours.

After his great victories in New Granada and Quito, Bolivar summoned a Pan-American congress at Panama, to which, besides the Spanish colonies, the North Americans also were invited. And, indeed, there was at the time a great party in the United States who

were enthusiastic in their support of the idea of a Pan-American federation. One of the principal reasons put forth by the United States for not participating in this congress—which afterwards proved a deplorable failure—was that, by being

Ferdinand VII. Restored to the Throne of Spain represented, they would be virtually sanctioning the abolition of negro slavery, and that their own representatives at the congress would in all probability be placed on an equal footing with the delegates of the Haitian Republic.

The revolution in Spain first brought about a change in public opinion, more especially when Ferdinand VII. was for a second time restored by the Holy Alliance to the throne of his fathers as absolute monarch. The revolutionary government was inclined, from principle, to make large allowances to the colonies, and when it saw that its power was becoming increasingly endangered it was willing to grant even the independence of a portion of the colonies in return for their support against France. The Argentine Republic might at that time have obtained recognition by severing itself from the rest of the colonies; but it refused offhand every offer of separate treatment.

The interference of the Holy Alliance next had the effect of separating Great Britain from the other Powers. That country declared that it would have to regard any attempt at a restoration of the status quo in the colonies as an unfriendly

The Famous Monroe Doctrine act. Encouraged by this declaration, the president of the United States, James Monroe, enunciated in his message to congress the so-called Monroe Doctrine—frequently reiterated since then in utterly different circumstances—to the effect that the United States would view any attempt on the part of European Powers to conquer territories on American soil as an



INDEPENDENCE SQUARE: A SCENE IN QUITO, THE CAPITAL OF ECUADOR

unfriendly act towards itself. This declaration had at first little significance, for as yet Spain had not officially recognised the independence of South America, nor had the South American republics met with such recognition on the part of the United States. It was, however, a long step in that direction; for, Spain being forbidden to make any attempts at the restoration of its power over the seceded colonies, the full recognition of the independence of the latter could be a question only of time and expediency, subject to the one consideration as to what use the newly emancipated states would make of their liberty.

At that time, when the victory of Ayacucho had destroyed the last vestige of the Spanish power in America, not a single one of the old colonial provinces was organised on a firm basis. Buenos Ayres at first, without any real disturbances, gave signs of developing into a republic with the promise of vitality, though here, too, a rapid change took place in the form and personnel of the supreme executive. After the independence of the republic had been recognised in 1816, however, a congress was elected by a free popular vote, and at times, too, the Budget of this young state, which was still struggling for



GOVERNMENT BUILDINGS AND SQUARE AT TEGUCIGALPA IN THE HONDURAS REPUBLIC



MAP OF SOUTH AMERICA, SHOWING THE COUNTRY AS IT IS TO-DAY

South America, since those days when the Spanish conquistadors found the country uncultivated and inhabited by a sparse population of Indians, has made gigantic strides along the paths of progress. The map on this page shows the country as it is to-day, with its many populous cities, its immense railroad systems, and every other sign of prosperity.

recognition, showed a balance. All these gains, however, were again entirely lost on the advent to power, in 1820, of the Federal party, which abolished the unity of the constitution, and not only acknowledged the independence of the seceded provinces of Bolivia, Paraguay and Uruguay, but also dissolved all connection

**Collapse
of Constitutional
Authority**

between the different provinces of the Argentine state *inter se* and with Buenos Ayres. The latter owed its endurance as the predominant power only to its geographical position, which brought it more in contact with foreign Powers than the inland provinces. Though historical tradition repeatedly led those in power for the time being at Buenos Ayres to assert the predominance of that province, yet for a considerable time its alliance with the neighbouring states rested on the basis of the complete sovereign independence of the contracting parties.

At that time the moral status of the government underwent a rapid decline. The revolution had been effected by men destined for leadership by their surpassing capacity. Belgrano, San Martin, Rivadavia, undeniably towered above the majority of their fellow-citizens in abilities and talents. The collapse of all constitutional power was a powerful factor in the production of a class of less honourable politicians. The victory of the federal idea was, in reality, the fruit of the ambition of local party leaders, whose principal aim, amid the general insecurity, was to obtain places for themselves and their supporters. To these aspirations the central party had no higher interests to oppose which might have sufficiently influenced the inexperienced masses.

Hence resulted the collapse of this party and the degeneration of governments. It is in this way only that we can understand the dictatorship of a man like Don Juan Manuel de Rosas, who by cunning and an utter absence of principle rose from the office of steward in a hacienda to the presidency of Buenos Ayres; next succeeded, by more or less doubtful means, in restoring the predominance of the latter state over the other provinces; and under difficult circumstances maintained his place as dictator for more than twenty years. That during this régime every stir of an independent opinion was stifled in blood, that the security of life and property

was reduced to a mere fancy, and that in spite of this the man was not overthrown, must be simply ascribed to the fact that even the better-minded among the people were as yet absolutely incapable of forming a real idea of the loudly praised blessings of republican liberty.

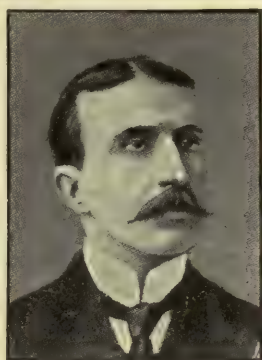
Nor was Rosas' final overthrow due to a reaction for the restoration of law and order; on the other hand, he fell in a struggle with people who were no better than himself. The sore point with the Argentine Republic was its relations with the seceded provinces, especially Montevideo, to which, apart from the Independent party in that province, Brazil was repeatedly making claims. After a previous struggle for the possession of Uruguay, Brazil and Buenos Ayres agreed to consider that state as independent, and jointly to guarantee its independence. There, too, however, existed different parties, each fighting for the helm of the ship of state; and the support of a fallen president gave Rosas the welcome pretext of once more making his influence felt over Uruguay also. The war which

**Rosas
Falls from
Power**

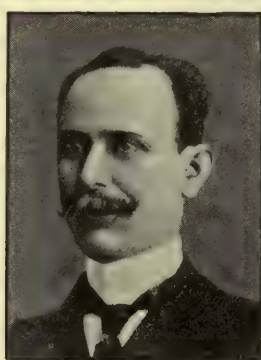
resulted led, temporarily, even to the interference of France and England. It principally, however, served to bring into the field against Rosas a succession of ambitious party leaders, to whose attack his rule finally succumbed in 1852, on the battlefield of Monte Caceros.

Under the guise of a convinced federalist, Rosas had managed, though by the most violent means, to maintain a government based on a fairly firm policy of union; his expulsion once more rendered the alliance of the Argentine Republic doubtful, and Buenos Ayres, for a considerable time, severed its connection with the latter. These contests, however, which were far less concerned with the federation of states or the formation of a republican union than with the acquisition of power by political parties, had hardly ceased at any time: revolutions in the republic itself, or civil wars between its various provinces, have endured up to the present day.

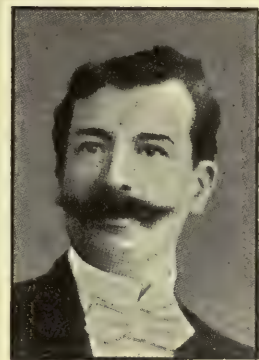
The most important of these struggles was with Paraguay. In this country, which was a republic merely in name, the dictatorship of Dr. Francia was followed by those of Carlos Antonio Lopez and his son Francisco Solano Lopez. While Francia had sought salvation for his state by strictly excluding it from all intercourse



Augusto B. Leguia, Peru



E. G. Navero, Paraguay



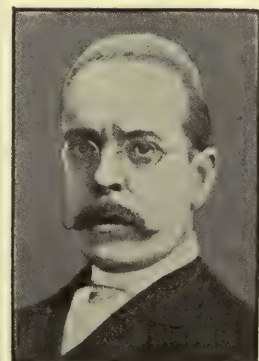
Colonel I. Montes, Bolivia



Dr. José F. Alcorta, Argentina



General J. V. Gomez, Venezuela



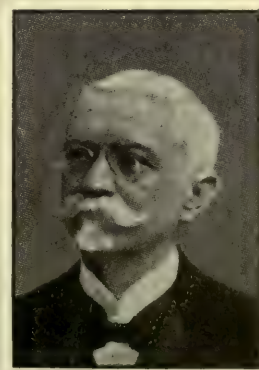
Dr. Claudio Williman, Uruguay



General Eloy Alfaro, Ecuador



Don Pedro Montt, Chili



Dr. Affonso Penna, Brazil

SOME PRESIDENTS OF THE SOUTH AMERICAN REPUBLICS

with its neighbours, the two Lopez, by freely admitting foreigners of all sorts, considerably advanced its economic development. The younger Lopez, however, by interfering in the presidential conflicts of Uruguay, forfeited the friendship of the latter state, and in October, 1864, also that of Brazil; and while endeavouring to injure these opponents he also frivolumously challenged the hostility of the Argentine Republic. In this manner arose the alliance of these three powers against Paraguay, which in the course of a five years' war lost almost its entire wealth, a considerable portion of its territory, and its political importance. Since that time, too, dictators appointed for life

Sucre's victory at Ayacucho. A congress summoned to Chuquisaca in August, 1825, declared the independence of the republic of Bolivia without a protest being lodged by either Peru or the Argentine Republic.

The young republic placed itself under the protection of Bolivar, and entrusted its future condition and development to his care. Nor did Bolivar allow the opportunity to escape of putting into substance his ideas of a constitutional government, but presented Bolivia with a constitution in which, as in the case of Angostura, provision was made for a president elected for life, a hereditary senate, and a lower house with limited powers. For himself Bolivar reserved the power of assuming,



A FORMER METHOD OF SHIPPING NITRATE AT PISAGUA IN CHILI

have been replaced in that country by republican presidents. Nevertheless, internal disturbances have been by no means infrequent, even in Paraguay; though revolutions have not in that country become a chronic condition to the same extent as in Uruguay, where the party wars between Colorados and Blanquillos, dating from Rosas' interference down to our own times, have brought matters to such a pitch that hardly a president has ever completed his legal term of office.

Nor did the last of the provinces once belonging to the viceregal province of Buenos Ayres experience a better fate than its sister states. Upper Peru, now known as Bolivia, did not acquire its liberty until

subject to a decree of congress, dictatorial powers whenever he should enter Bolivian territory; but Sucre, the commander-in-chief at Ayacucho, was chosen as the constitutional president. The latter recognised much better than his master the dangers to which the *Codice Boliviano* exposed the young republic. He accepted the presidential office for only two years, but resigned before the expiration of that period when he perceived the extreme opposition with which the republican patriotic party viewed the aristocratic tendencies of the Colombian dictator.

Thus Bolivia, too, entered upon a period of successive military revolutions, which were interrupted only by the ten years' dictatorship of General Santa Cruz. The



CHILIAN SLOOP O'HIGGINS FIRING ON THE GARRISON IN VALPARAISO HARBOUR



EXCHANGE OF SHOTS BETWEEN SHORE BATTERIES AND CHILIAN IRONCLAD

THE CIVIL WAR IN CHILI IN 1851: HOSTILITIES AT VALPARAISO

latter was of Indian descent, had fought in the wars of liberation, and so greatly distinguished himself at the Pichincha as to merit his election to the highest office in the state. This, however, did not satisfy his ambition; for, like Bolivar, he had dreams of a federation of all the American republics under his leadership.

Peru Declares its Independence

The condition of Peru gave him an opportunity of seeing his plans realised. Though the dictatorship of Bolivar had ousted the National party, it had by no means extinguished it; and as soon as the Spanish power had received its final blow it at once revived. The province endured with but little relish the guardianship of the Colombian republic, and when the internal complications of the latter called the dictator to the north, it shook off its yoke, and in 1827 declared itself independent.

This, however, was but the signal for the eruption of civil disturbances. Santa Cruz, delighted at having found his long-cherished wish for interference, contrived to bring about a closer connection of Peru with Bolivia, and, as chief of the alliance, wielded the highest power in both republics. In this capacity he rendered important services to the economic development of the states under his authority; but his foreign policy was not equal to the difficulties of the situation and brought about the fall of his government and the end of the Peru-Bolivian Federation.

Chili was the rock upon which Santa Cruz was shipwrecked. In that state its first president, O'Higgins, had fallen a victim to democratic aims at the moment when San Martin in Peru gave up the struggle for the establishment of a constitutional monarchy in South America. For Chili also, furthermore, the rule of the so-called Liberals brought bad times; between 1823 and 1831 that state had no less than thirteen governments and seven times changed its constitution. It was not

Chili's Rapid Succession of Governments

until the presidency of Joaquin Prieto and the Conservative Constitution of 1833 that the development of Chili attained that stability which until recently has so favourably distinguished it from all the other Spanish-American republics. In the hope of attaching Chili to its confederacy of states, Santa Cruz had supported the attempt of the Chilean ex-president, Freire, who by force of arms aspired to lead the Liberal party to victory

against Prieto and the Conservatives. But not only did Freire himself fall before the constitutional government of Prieto, but he also involved Santa Cruz in his defeat, inasmuch as Chili declared war against the Peruvian-Bolivian alliance on account of the interference of the latter in Chilean affairs. The war, which was but feebly conducted on the part of Santa Cruz, culminated in the complete victory of the Chileans at Yungay in 1839, and was followed by the complete independence of all three republics and the resignation of the Bolivian dictator.

Since that time a large number of presidents have followed one another in Bolivia in rapid succession, almost all having been raised to power and hurled from office by military pronunciamientos. Outstripped by all its neighbours, that country has on only one other occasion since played a part in history, and that an essentially passive one—namely, in the war between Chili and Peru in 1879.

The fall of Santa Cruz benefited Peru as little as it did Bolivia. Though more was done in this state for the economic development of the country than in the other republics, more especially through the efforts of President Ramon Castilla (1844-1854), the internal policy of most of the presidents was nevertheless neither sufficiently prudent nor sufficiently unselfish to place the welfare of the state on a solid foundation. Its great natural resources were either squandered or were made the object of rash speculations which an old-established state could scarcely have survived. To the young republic they meant absolute ruin. When the natural resources of the central states, which had been the first to be exploited, were exhausted, the southern districts began, towards the end of the seventies, to be regarded as specially valuable.

The discovery of inexhaustible deposits of saltpetre and soda led to these barren deserts being looked to as a substitute for the guano deposits of the Chincha Islands, which had become unlicensed mining-grounds. Hitherto the borders of these somewhat dismal regions had received but little attention. Bolivia was, indeed, in possession of a narrow strip of territory extending to the Pacific Ocean and separating Peru from Chili, but had paid so little attention to it that it had almost resigned both its

territorial claims and sovereign rights to Chili before the value of this possession was recognised. Thus it came about that not only in Atacama, the Bolivian coast province, but also in Tarapaca, the southernmost part of Peru, almost all industrial interests were in the hands of Chilean and other foreign subjects, who were here amassing riches, to the great envy of the real owners of the land. Having for a long time been in secret agreement, the opponents of Chili began hostilities, Bolivia in 1879 subjecting Chilean industries in Atacama to heavy tolls, and, on refusal of their payment, confiscating all Chilean property. Chili, however, was prepared for the struggle; its troops occupied, without serious resistance, the disputed strip of coast, and Bolivia during the whole war hardly made another attempt to recover its lost territory. The quarrel was really fought out between Peru and Chili, the former having stepped in on behalf of Bolivia in virtue of treaty obligations, and thereby given Chili the desired opportunity of declaring war. As long as the Peruvian fleet was successful in disputing with Chili its supremacy on the sea, the operations of the Chileans on land did not extend beyond investing the coast towns of the extreme south. But after the capture, October 8th, 1879, of the Huascar, the largest and swiftest of the Peruvian battleships, in an unequal fight against the Chilean fleet, both the fighting forces of the southern republic were able to act in concert and enter upon that succession of victories which culminated at Lima in

January, 1881. Both in Peru and Bolivia the defeat was followed by the downfall of the existing government, and it was years before the relations of the conqueror to the conquered were accorded constitutional sanction. In the end, however, Chili was confirmed in the permanent possession of Atacama and Tarapaca, and in the temporary occupation of the provinces of Tacna and Arica; but the pledges given by Chili on that occasion have not been redeemed up to the present day. This victory was a brilliant justification



THE CHILI-ARGENTINA PLEDGE OF PEACE
Standing high in the very heart of the Andes, this colossal statue of Christ was erected in celebration of peace between Argentina and Chili, and on its pedestal bears this inscription: "Sooner shall these mountains crumble to dust than Argentines and Chileans break the peace which at the feet of Christ the Redeemer they have sworn to maintain."

Photo: Rider Noble

for the Chilean Constitution, which had been decried as an enemy to liberty. To it undoubtedly must be attributed the fact that the government of Chili has since the constitution of 1833 been firmer and more concentrated than that of any other of the Spanish-American republics. The reproach hurled at this government, of being an enemy to freedom, is, however, utterly unfounded. Even under Manuel Montt (1851-1861), the true founder of Chilean prosperity, the development of the constitution on a liberal basis had been seriously begun, and his successors have not stood idle.

Whether, however, the advances thus won by Chili have outweighed the disadvantages of subsequent party struggles, more violent and embittered than those experienced under the Conservative constitution of 1833, may well be left open to doubt. Upon them, at any rate, was based the conflict which, after a peace extending over decades, led in 1891 to a revolution and the violent downfall of the government. The experience that a war may be scarcely less dangerous to the conquering party in its



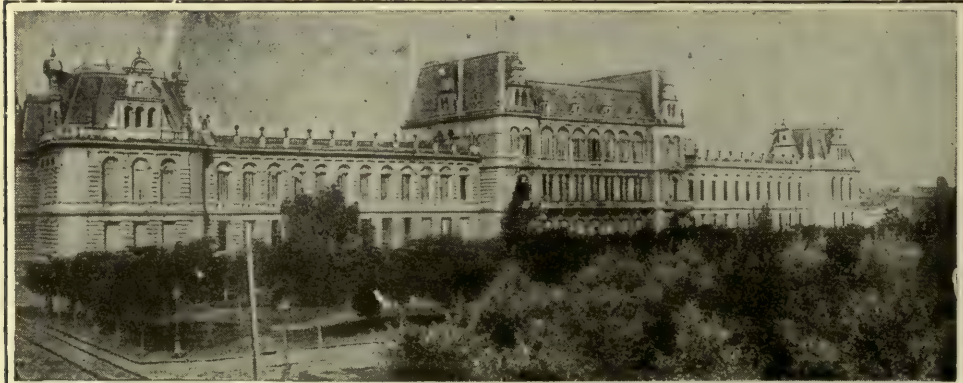
CYPRIANO CASTRO, EX-PRESIDENT OF THE VENEZUELAN REPUBLIC, AND HIS CABINET

industrial life than to the defeated one, once more proved itself true in the case of Chili. The extraordinary increase in the national wealth which had been the outcome of the war with Peru led to an extravagant activity in the industrial sphere. President José Manuel Balmaceda (1886-1891) especially had in this respect strained the resources of the country beyond their capacity. The financial crisis developed, however, into a political one when it was shown that these industrial speculations had been exploited from the public treasury for the personal advantage of the president and his creatures.

This imparted to the revolution, which was founded as much on political as on personal party considerations, an unexpected moral force, and in 1891, in a short

time, procured for it an easy victory and one which was not exploited to excess. The fact remains, notwithstanding, that in Chili, too, the regular succession of constitutional governments was in this wise interrupted by a victorious military rising. The few years which have elapsed since then have sufficed to show that the civil power has not emerged from the struggle without having sustained a permanent shock. At the present time Chili has only a qualified claim to its former reputation of being the most trustworthy of the South American republics.

The republic of Colombia, too, the creation of which had been Bolivar's special pride, did not enjoy a long lease of life. While the liberator, reaping the fruits of Sucre's victory at Ayacucho,



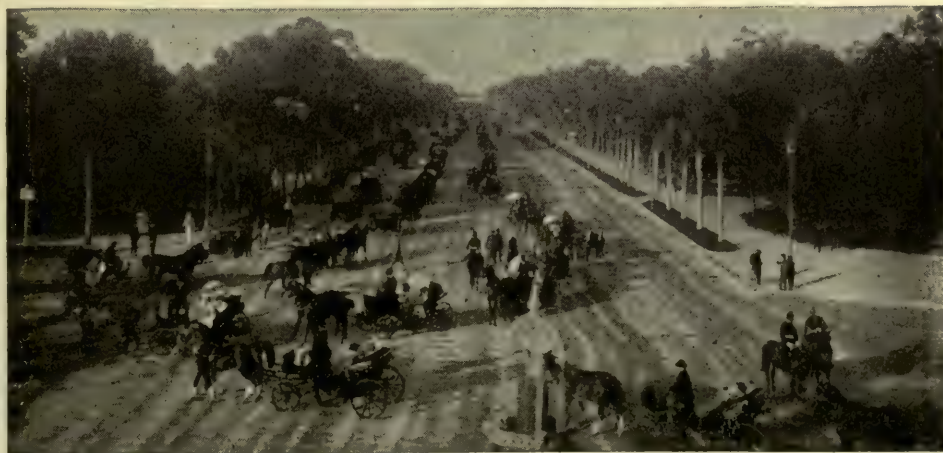
THE IMPOSING BUILDINGS OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION AT BUENOS AYRES



LOOKING WEST ALONG THE AVENUE DE MAYO



THE PASEO D' JULIO, WITH THE DOCKS IN THE DISTANCE



SCENE IN THE FASHIONABLE PALERMO PARK

BUENOS AYRES, THE CAPITAL OF THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC

was holding his triumphal progress through Bolivia, his mind was already occupied with bold plans which again had for their object the expansion of his Colombian republic. At one time he was offering his aid to the Chilians in driving out the last remnants of the Spanish army of occupation from the archipelago of Chiloë ;

Bolivar Under Suspicion

at another he was planning with the Argentines an advance against Brazil, the last remaining division of the South American continent which was still under a monarchical constitution and which had not yet entirely severed its connection with the Old World.

His dictatorial power, however, and the aristocratic constitution which he had introduced in Peru and Bolivia, caused him to be looked upon with suspicion by republicans not only in foreign countries, but even in New Granada ; and, besides, neither in Chili nor in La Plata was there a dearth of ambitious generals who were ready to follow his own example for their own benefit. In the end the growing distrust of the Colombian Congress recalled him from the south, and his unconditional obedience to their behest was, perhaps, the best defence he could offer.

In Venezuela a strong party, with Paez at its head, had, ever since 1826, urged the separation of that country from the Colombian Republic. Indeed, the secession had almost become an accomplished fact when Bolivar yielded, and by all kinds of concessions succeeded in inducing his old comrades in arms once more to recognise his authority and that of the Colombian Congress. In the meantime an exactly similar movement took place in Peru, where, as in Bolivia, the Colombians had, from the beginning, been extremely unpopular.

As soon as the National party in that state saw itself freed from the menacing presence of the dictator, it rose in revolt, abolished

Peru's Revolt Against the Liberator

the government which Bolivar had established at Lima, and invited Bolivia to join it. The latter state responded to

the invitation in a qualified manner by rising against Sucre and forcing him to resign. The Peruvians, however, proceeded even further ; they caused pronunciamientos to be issued at Guayaquil and other places in Ecuador. Under the pretext of protecting the latter against oppression, the Peruvian dictator Lamar

declared war against Colombia. Here, however, Sucre again saved the honour of the Colombian arms, and by his victory at Tarqui brought about a revolution against Lamar in Peru. The new government, though insisting, like so many of its predecessors, on the independence of Peru, nevertheless concluded peace on easy terms with its neighbour states.

Even at this time Bolivar had constantly to battle against a strong current of opposition which aimed at his deposition and the abolition of his dictatorship. After he had four times abdicated his government, in order only at the next moment to resume it with the most unlimited powers, his enemies determined to get rid of him by unconstitutional methods. After several unsuccessful attempts at revolution, a military rising took place on September 25th, 1828, at Bogota, having for its object the assassination of Bolivar. His almost miraculous escape, however, so utterly threw into confusion the plans of the conspirators that they were easily conquered, and once again Bolivar's cleverness induced him to seek for reconciliation with the vanquished rather than for vengeance

Death of the Great Bolivar

upon his enemies. He was, however, unable completely to disarm the party which, in the constant renewal of the extraordinary powers of his regime, saw a serious danger to liberty. At last, having once more in the congress of 1830 had recourse to the often-tried trick of a resignation, he had the painful experience of seeing it accepted, accompanied by all imaginable marks of esteem for his great exertions on behalf of liberty, while a successor was appointed in the person of Joaquin Mosquera. After somewhat prolonged hesitation Bolivar decided to submit to the decision of the congress. Having for some time been in ill health, he at length left the country in which he considered himself to have been treated with ingratitude, and died at Santa Marta on December 17th in the same year.

The Colombian Republic had come to an end even before his death. Venezuela shortly afterwards repeated the attempt to sever its connection with Colombia, and in 1830 these efforts assumed a new direction directly in opposition to the policy of Bolivar. Nor was the abdication of the latter able to stop the movement, for Paez and his following exercised



A TYPICAL GAUCHO, SHOWING HORSE PECULIAR TO THE REPUBLIC



THE GAUCHOS AT HOME: VIEW OUTSIDE A RANCH



GAUCHO MUSICIAN WITH THE NATIONAL GUITAR

GAUCHO TYPES OF THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC

unlimited control over the legislative assembly. All attempts to resist the new order of things were suppressed without much bloodshed, and before the close of the year Venezuela, within the range of the old general captaincy of Caracas, declared itself an independent republic. The same thing happened in Bolivia, with

Republic of New Granada

this difference, that that state upheld with gratitude the memory of its liberator and offered him an asylum when he laid down his offices in Colombia; an offer which he refused, as also the invitation to assume once more the government, sent to him after a successful revolution against the régime of Mosquera. In the following year, 1831, the very name of Colombia disappeared; the provinces which still adhered to the government of Bogota constituted themselves into the Republic of New Granada, and, under a Conservative constitution, handled vigorously by a series of energetic presidents, enjoyed until 1857 a fairly undisturbed—indeed almost peaceful—development.

Here also, however, the unfortunate civil war between the Central and Federal parties afterwards broke out afresh, and the cause of the latter party, which was more than usually justified by the extraordinary differences in the geographical features of the separate provinces, was in the end successful. Under the name of the United States of Colombia they adopted, in 1861, a constitution planned on exactly the same lines as that of the United States of North America. Since then the country has, under more peaceful conditions, been able to devote itself largely to the development and the opening up of its many industrial resources.

Venezuela underwent a similar development. During the first twenty years José Antonio Paez, either in the capacity of president (1830–1838, 1839–1842), as dictator (1846), or merely as adviser of the parties in power, virtually directed the destinies of the state for whose liberation he, next to Bolivar, had done the

most. His vigorous government assured peaceful times to the republic. Here too, however, a federal constitution on the North American pattern gained an increasing number of supporters, although such a constitution could hardly be said to have arisen out of natural conditions, but had become the watchword of the Liberal party more from a love of imitating North American political institutions. Venezuela belongs to those states of Spanish America which have been least able to establish themselves on a solid basis. After a civil war extending over several years, in which Paez also once more—1861–1863—took up arms in defence of the unity of the republic, the provinces, in 1864, formed themselves into the Federal Republic of “the United States of Venezuela.” In spite of this, civil commotions broke out over and over again; and it was not until the almost dictatorial régime of Antonio Guzman Blanco (1870–1877, 1879–1884, and 1886–1887) that the republic enjoyed a temporary peace.

During recent years the Argentine Republic has succeeded in restoring the confidence in its financial stability which at one time sank to a very low ebb. Venezuela has succeeded, on the other hand, in attracting the public attention of the world by her lighthearted disregard of obligations, financial and other; especially under her recently ejected president, Castro. In 1896 her claims in a boundary dispute with Great Britain led to an arbitration under which the British views were practically confirmed.

President's Vagaries Lead to Ejection

At a later date President Castro's attitude brought about a visit of German and British warships acting in concert, with some loss of dignity to both those Powers and some histrionics in connection with the Monroe Doctrine on the part of the United States. Subsequently, however, the president's vagaries resulted in his ejection from the country, and Venezuela once more relapsed into comparative quiescence.



PLAZA MAYO, BUENOS AYRES, WITH GOVERNMENT HOUSE AND STATUE OF LIBERTY

INDEPENDENT SOUTH AMERICA SINCE THE REVOLUTION

But Venezuela was again disturbed in 1913 by an attempt of ex-President Castro to effect a counter-revolution. The complete failure of this movement left General Juan Vicente Gomez in undisturbed possession of the Presidency, which he had attained by a coup d'état in 1908 after Castro's ejection. Generally the close of the first decade of the twentieth century saw an increasing stability of government in all the republics of South America, though Peru was troubled in 1914 by a recrudescence of the old revolutionary methods of changing the personnel of government, and Uruguay, even in that year had not succeeded in ending the long-existent faction strife of rival political parties. On the other hand, it is greatly to the credit of Uruguay that popular elementary education has so considerably increased within its borders in recent years. The lack of education, necessarily accompanied by a large amount of illiteracy, has been, on the whole, the weakest spot in civilisation throughout South America; and even those countries where education is compulsory by law

More Schools Needed

have made no very serious attempt to enforce the law or to provide adequate school buildings and competent teachers in rural districts. Republican institutions and manhood suffrage have not yet guaranteed in South America an educated democracy, or freedom from an occasional political dictatorship. It is well, however, to record the disappearance of international warfare between the countries of South America, and in especial, the better relations established between Chili and Peru. The declaration of independence of Colombia on the part of Panama in 1903 naturally brought soreness to the former, but was formally endorsed by a treaty between the two states in 1909, when Panama agreed to pay Colombia \$2,500,000 as its share of the public debt. In spite of increased commercial activities, and the many signs of material progress—noticeably the greater length of railway in working order and under construction—population throughout South America has advanced but slowly in recent years, and in some countries is stagnant or decreasing. True, official census returns are not compiled with European or North American exactness and government estimates alone are in most cases the basis of comparison; but these estimates

may be taken as approximately trustworthy. Thus, the Argentine Republic in 1907 had a population of 6,210,000, and in 1913 6,673,781. Bolivia in 1906 had 2,180,710 and in 1912 2,200,000. In Chile and Uruguay government estimates show an actual decline. The former from 3,871,000 in 1907 to 3,505,317 in 1912, the latter from 1,111,758 in 1908 to

Stagnant Population 1,094,688 in 1912. Colombia and Paraguay boast a marked increase—Colombia from 4,100,000 in 1908 to 5,472,604 in 1912, and Paraguay from 631,347 in 1905 to 800,000 in 1911. Venezuela has also increased from 2,602,492 in 1909 to 2,743,847 in 1914. Peru and Ecuador are content to remain unchanged according to the returns of their respective Governments.

The population of Peru was still estimated in 1914 at 4,500,000 as it was in 1908, and Ecuador in 1914 at 1,500,000 as in 1908. In both cases the figures are probably too high. The other returns give Peru in 1912 at 3,530,000 and Ecuador in the same year at 1,300,000. The outstanding fact is that South America, with its vast natural resources and favourable climatic conditions, is still enormously under-populated, and is capable of maintaining an increase of numbers far beyond ordinary calculation. With the exception of Peru, where the revolutionary methods in politics, formerly popular throughout the South American republics, were still practised as late as 1914, the history of South America in the early years of the twentieth century is a record of steady development in the art of civil government, and of growing attachment to European civilisation of the French fashion. The wealthy South American looks to Paris for his model—not to London, Madrid, or Berlin—and it is Paris that is visited. How far this French influence explains the lack of growth in population cannot be answered with any

Influence of France

certainly, but that it affords some explanation is at least a probability. The Roman Catholic religion remains the accepted faith of all Christians—save for a tiny minority of Protestants, mostly foreign residents—in each of the South American republics and enjoys varying degrees of state support. But toleration is freely extended to Protestants, and freethought is avowed by many who profess the ideals of the French Republic.



THE FRENCH ARMY UNDER MARSHAL BAZAINE ENTERING THE CITY OF MEXICO IN 1863

Napoleon III., for the ostensible purpose of obtaining satisfaction for wrongs and injustices done to the foreign population of Mexico, despatched troops under Bazaine to the republic in 1863. He had originally enlisted the co-operation of England and Spain in his enterprise, but the two latter Powers, finding that his real object was not to obtain indemnification for suffered losses, but to overthrow the existing government with a view to replacing it by a monarchy under the protection of France, promptly withdrew their support from the scheme.

From the painting by Beaugé at Versailles



MEXICO AND ITS REVOLUTIONS THE TRAGIC HISTORY OF MAXIMILIAN

DURING the whole period of the South American wars of liberation Mexico stood aside and pursued its own road. After the overthrow of Hidalgo and his adherents Spanish rule seemed once more established, and even the introduction and re-abolition of the democratic constitution of 1812 passed off without incident. Naturally, the events which were passing all around in states allied by race could not entirely fail to react upon the mind of the population; but the desire for freedom and independence was not strong enough to aim at the subversion of the existing order of things. The revolutionary impulse in this country took its start from an entirely different quarter.

The viceroy had bestowed his confidence in a special degree upon the principal lieutenant, Iturbide, who, though a Mexican by birth, had not only distinguished himself by his energy and zeal, but also by his cruelty in the struggle against the forces of Hidalgo. Iturbide, however, abused the trust reposed in him. He engaged in secret schemes with the Creole leaders and the scattered partisans of Hidalgo, and, though ostensibly he took the field against one of the latter, he caused the promulgation in the little town of Iguala of a military pronunciamiento the point of which was directed against Spanish rule. In the programme of a constitution which he drew up Mexico was declared independent, and a constitutional assembly was held in prospect. The country, however, was declared a monarchy in anticipation, the throne of which was to be offered to Ferdinand VII. and the other princes of his house.

Iturbide's following increased with astonishing rapidity, so that the viceroy and the Spanish party soon saw themselves confined to the capital. At that moment the arrival of a viceroy appointed by a Liberal Spanish Government terminated the revolution without bloodshed. The new regent accepted Iturbide's plan

almost in its entirety, and returned to Spain in person in order to exert himself in its behalf at the court of Ferdinand VII. Had one of the king's brothers decided at that time to go over to Mexico, that state would in all probability have been preserved to the Bourbon dynasty.

Republic Proclaimed in Mexico

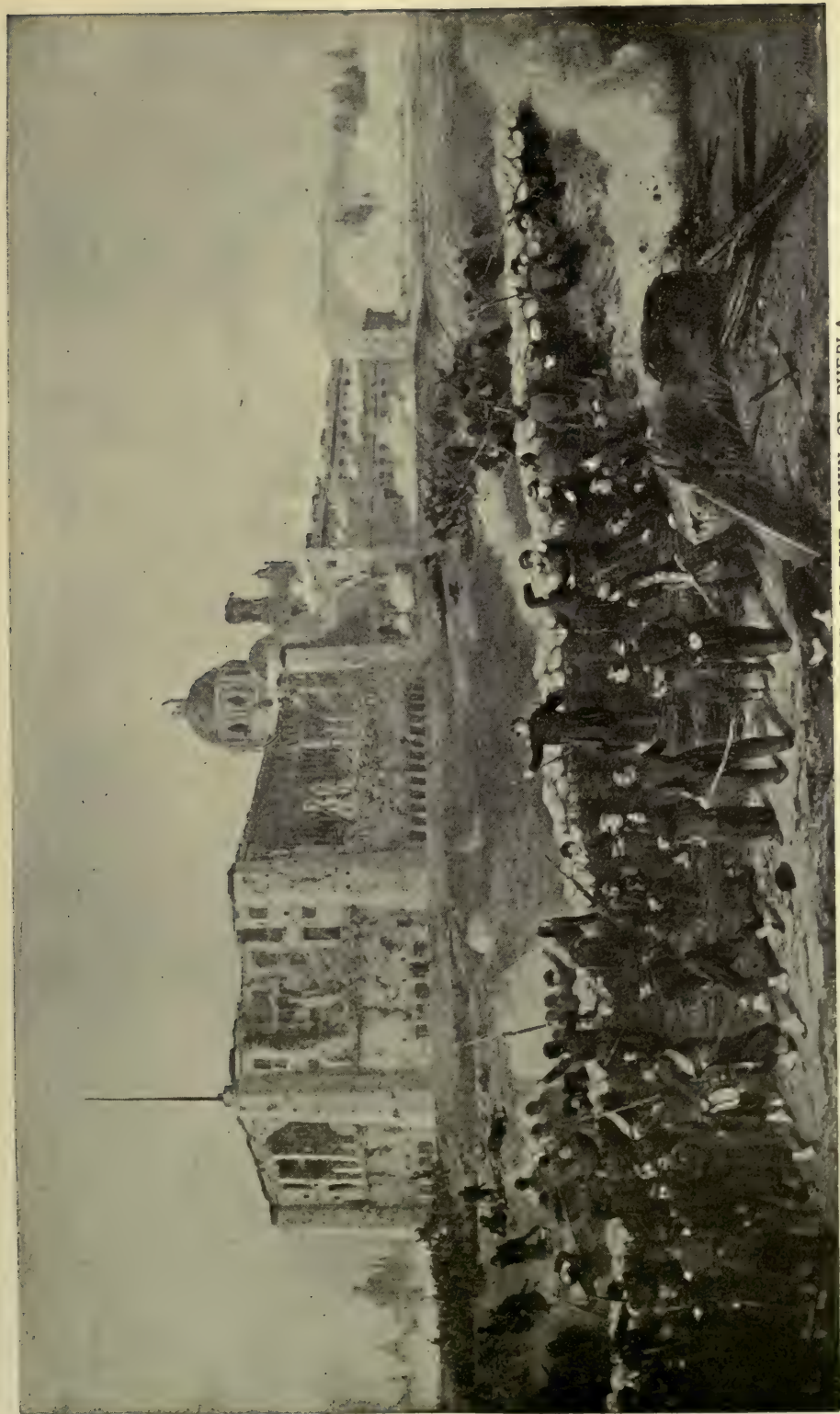
The rejection of the Iguala plan, on the other hand, pushed its originators farther along on the road to revolution. Since the provisional arrangement threatened in the end to become dangerous to all parties, Iturbide allowed himself to be proclaimed emperor of Mexico by his adherents in May, 1822, in order in this manner to save his constitutional edifice. His following, however, was neither large enough nor his past career sufficiently stainless to force the country to accept his rule. Hostile pronunciamientos were promulgated in the most widely different provinces, and as early as March, 1823, the emperor was obliged to seek refuge on board an English ship.

Thereupon Mexico, too, was proclaimed a republic. It was, however, a republic merely in name, while a succession of more or less fortunate military pretenders were fighting for Iturbide's inheritance. The most prominent figure in this struggle was General Antonio Lopez de Santa Ana—Santana—who had already taken a conspicuous part in the overthrow of the emperor, and afterwards appointed and deposed presidents at his own free will and pleasure until finally he himself accepted the chief office in the state, which he was destined more than once to lose and to recover. He is, however, undeniably entitled to the credit of having adhered in his internal administration to a strong policy of centralisation, as opposed to the federal doctrine which had sprung up out of a blind zeal for imitating the North American constitution, a zeal which was entirely unjustified from both geographical and historical considerations; while in his

Santa Ana the Great Figure of the Struggle



THE CAPTURE OF THE HARBOUR OF SAN JUAN DE ULUA BY THE FRENCH IN 1838
 Mexico, finding herself both on the verge of bankruptcy and in a state of revolution, sought to recover her financial position by laying hands on the property of foreigners, thus violating treaty rights. This led to the interference of France. The above picture shows an incident in the initial stages of the war that followed, when, on November 27th 1838, a French man-of-war took possession of the harbour of San Juan de Ulua. The war ended with the parties in power agreeing to make no further encroachment upon the property of foreigners.



THE FRENCH TROOPS IN MEXICO: CAPTURE OF THE TOWN OF PUEBLA

A long and bitter struggle followed the entry of the French into Mexico. With a force of 30,000 men Puebla was captured, but only at the expense of many hundreds of lives. Then Mexico opened its gates to the conquerors, thus paving the way for the proclamation of the Archduke Maximilian of Austria as emperor. A series of internal wars marks the history of the republic for the next two years, a condition of affairs which culminated in the evacuation by the French of the country, the downfall of Napoleon, and the execution of Maximilian.

From the painting by A. Beaugé at Versailles

foreign policy he deserves recognition for having manfully and repeatedly, at the risk of his own personal safety, defended the honour and integrity of the country.

Mexico, however, was drawn into international complications to a greater extent than the other Spanish-American republics. As late as 1829 the Spaniards had made an attempt to reconquer the country, but had been defeated by Santa Ana and forced to capitulate. The rising which occurred in Texas in 1836 was primarily an internal matter, since at that time the borders of Mexico still embraced the Far West of North America.

Santa Ana in his attempt to bring the province back to its obedience was defeated on April 20th, 1836, and taken prisoner, as a result of which the Separatists gained the upper hand. Under the presidency of Houston, an American, Texas formed an independent republic which from its origin linked its fortunes closely with the United States, and in 1845 was, on its own application, actually received into the Union. Mexico was not prepared to accept this rebuff calmly; it declared war against the United States and entrusted Santa Ana with the chief command. The Mexican Republic, torn by internal factions and on the verge of financial ruin, was, however, no match for the States. The invasion of the northern provinces by the United States troops met with no serious opposition, nor were the Mexicans able to prevent the landing of the enemy's forces at Vera Cruz.

It is true that Santa Ana repeatedly opposed their advance, but he suffered one defeat after another, and finally fled to Jamaica at the very time when the troops of the Union were dictating the terms of peace to their opponents in their own capital. By this treaty Mexico surrendered its claims to Texas and all its northern Pacific provinces against an indemnity of fifteen million dollars.

The Fall of Santa Ana In 1853 Santa Ana was once more summoned to undertake, as dictator, the management and restoration to order of the exhausted state—a task which he took in hand with his wonted energy; but he was hardly likely to restore internal order, seeing that since December 17th, 1853, he had openly been aiming at securing himself in a position of permanent authority. Accordingly, in 1855, his fall was brought about by fresh *pronuncia-*

mentos. Thereupon Mexico was again plunged into a state of revolution which once more drew down upon the unfortunate country the interference of foreign Powers. The prolonged condition of lawlessness had brought the state to the verge of bankruptcy, and, as may be easily conceived, during the period of financial stress the parties in power had not infrequently laid hands on the property of foreigners, in violation of treaty rights. As early as 1838 similar proceedings had led to a war with France, which had temporarily taken possession of the harbour of San Juan de Ulua. In 1861 President Carlo Benito Juarez, after long party struggles, had managed to secure for himself the supreme authority, though by no means without opposition.

When he once more began to make illegal encroachments upon the property of foreigners, Napoleon III., who by the glory of foreign exploits was endeavouring to make people forget the unconstitutional origin of his imperial rule, seized this opportunity and proposed to England and Spain to vindicate the rights of their subjects in Mexico by a common expedition against that country. The proposal was accepted in the first instance by both parties; and an army composed of contingents from all three states occupied Vera Cruz and advanced to Orizaba. But first England and afterwards Spain withdrew from the enterprise as soon as the allies saw that France was by no means actuated merely by a desire to obtain indemnification for suffered losses, but was in reality aiming at the overthrow of the existing government with the view of replacing it by a monarchy under its own protection.

Deceived by the whispered insinuations of Mexican fugitives, the French believed that the people would flock to them *en masse* and accompany them in triumph to their capital. Instead of this, they received at Puebla so hot a reception that they were only too glad again to reach and hold their former quarters at Orizaba. Nor was the expeditionary force able to resume its advance until it had been reinforced to 30,000 men. After a bitter struggle for the possession of Puebla, which ended with the capitulation of the Mexican garrison, Mexico also opened its gates to the conqueror. With this the object of the expedition seemed achieved. A junta, rapidly summoned, appointed a



THE ALAMEDA, MEXICO'S BEAUTIFUL PUBLIC GARDEN



PLAZA MAYOR, SHOWING THE FAMOUS ZOCALO GARDEN

IN THE CITY OF MEXICO, THE HANDSOMEST CAPITAL OF AMERICA

provisional government which a few days afterwards laid before the congress the plan of a constitution creating a monarchy under the name of an empire. The proposal was accepted by an overwhelming majority—indeed, almost unanimously. The candidate selected by Napoleon, of whose acceptance he had assured himself previous to taking any action, was the Archduke Maximilian of Austria. Hence, when a deputation of the provisional government proceeded to Miramare to offer the archduke the imperial crown of Mexico, the latter readily accepted the new dignity. In April, 1864, in the harbour of Trieste, he went on board the *Novara*, which was to convey him to Vera Cruz. The voyage was quickly

control. Bazaine was almost a sort of supplementary or accessory king in Mexico, and his powers in this capacity increased in proportion as the mutual confidence between the emperor and the marshal disappeared. The contracts, moreover, showed that the interference of the French in favour of Maximilian was by no means as unselfish as it had appeared to be. The financial demands made upon the country were extremely oppressive and unjustifiable in so far as, under the pressure of French policy, an unworthy speculation for the exploitation of Mexico was carried on with demands of a highly questionable nature. These in themselves were factors foreboding little good to Maximilian's authority. He



GENERAL VIEW OF RIO DE JANEIRO IN THE YEAR 1835

accomplished, and the people greeted their new sovereign with frank and open-hearted joy. On his entry into Mexico the party of opposition, at whose head was ex-President Benito Juarez, seemed practically vanquished.

Its importance, however, revived and increased with astonishing rapidity in consequence of the internal difficulties which the new imperial government was destined to encounter. From the very beginning Maximilian was not his own master. By his contracts with Napoleon III. he was indeed assured of the assistance of the French troops; but in the person of their commander-in-chief, Marshal Bazaine, he was associated with a power over which he exercised only the most limited

himself fully recognised that the protection of a foreign Power would alienate from him the sympathies of an important party in the country. He therefore not only endeavoured to withdraw himself as much as possible from French influence, but also made efforts to keep himself above the parties which divided the country into two hostile camps. The people, however, were not at this time ripe for such a high-minded policy.

While the Conservative party, which had raised Maximilian to the throne, found itself deceived in its expectations, the Liberals looked upon his conciliatory attitude as a confession of weakness, and soon began to take fresh courage, the more so as they had found a support which



IN THE HEART OF THE CITY: THE FIFTEENTH OF NOVEMBER SQUARE



PANORAMIC VIEW SHOWING THE MOST WONDERFUL BAY IN THE WORLD

SCENES IN RIO DE JANEIRO, THE CAPITAL OF THE REPUBLIC OF BRAZIL.



THE LAST MOMENTS OF THE EMPEROR MAXIMILIAN, JUNE 19TH, 1867

The last great tragedy in the history of Mexico occurred on June 19th, 1867. Maximilian, who two years before had been proclaimed emperor by Napoleon III., found himself called upon to defend his empire against the standard of revolt raised by the deposed President Juarez. While defending Queretaro with troops of 8,000 men, he was, on the night of May 19th, betrayed by General Lopez. The above picture shows the ill-starred emperor's last moments; he has taken the sacrament and breakfasted, and is preparing to accompany the two officers to the place of execution.

From the painting by Jean Paul Laurens

promised a much surer protection than France was capable of offering to their opponents. French interference was confessedly directed against the United States, the enormous expansion and rapid rise of which filled the monarchs of Europe with anxious apprehension. Napoleon thought he had seized upon a specially favourable moment for interfering at a time when the war of secession kept the United States busily occupied with their own internal affairs. The rapid and complete victory of the northern states, however, left their hands free, and tended only to make them assume a more vigorous attitude in regard to the Mexican question. They indeed still looked upon Juarez as the sole legal authority in

Mexico at a time when the latter, on his own absolute decision, had prolonged the term of his expired presidency, and was actually wandering as an exile on the extreme confines of the country. To Napoleon the prospect that the

French support of Maximilian might give to the United States a pretext for invading Northern Mexico seemed extremely annoying. Instead, however, of openly avowing the situation and endeavouring to the best of his power

to bring about a solution in some other way, Napoleon made the non-fulfilment of its financial obligations by the Mexican Government the miserable pretext for simply sacrificing Maximilian after leaving him for a long time faltering between hope and fear.



COINAGE OF THE EMPEROR MAXIMILIAN

MEXICO AND ITS REVOLUTIONS

Maximilian, it is true, had not shown himself equal to the task of controlling the extraordinarily difficult condition of Mexican affairs. His wavering attitude between the Mexican parties and his irresolute policy in regard to France had done much to impair the stability of his throne. To add to these troubles his health gave way, and he was also afflicted by the unfortunate condition of his wife, Charlotte, who had become insane while making vain efforts in Paris and Rome to further her husband's cause. At the time when the French troops began to be withdrawn from Mexico he seemed to have resolved on abdicating. All of a sudden, however, he returned and placed himself at the head of the feeble army which was making painful efforts to maintain his rule. But it was too late. Betrayed by his own generals at Queretaro about the middle of May, after a short informal trial he, in company with the last of his faithful adherents, was shot by the Republicans on June 19th, 1867.

Juarez had now an easy task. Once more in possession of power, he showed himself, as a politician, much better adapted for the work than his predecessors. Under the form of a republic,

Mexico, since 1866, has been virtually subjected to the dictatorship of two men—Benito Juarez (1867-1872) and Porfirio Díaz (1877-1881, and from 1884 to 1911). From the first pronunciamientos and revolutions have undoubtedly been as frequent among the orders of the day in that country as in the rest of Spanish America. Nevertheless, through the enlightened despotism of these two men, the country recovered much that had been lost during the period of continuous revolutions. In alliance with its Spanish sister republics, it has made slow but certain and unmistakable progress

on the road to true republican liberty. When Iturbide, in 1821, brought the Spanish dominion in Mexico to a sudden end, the movement in favour of independence also spread to the general captaincy

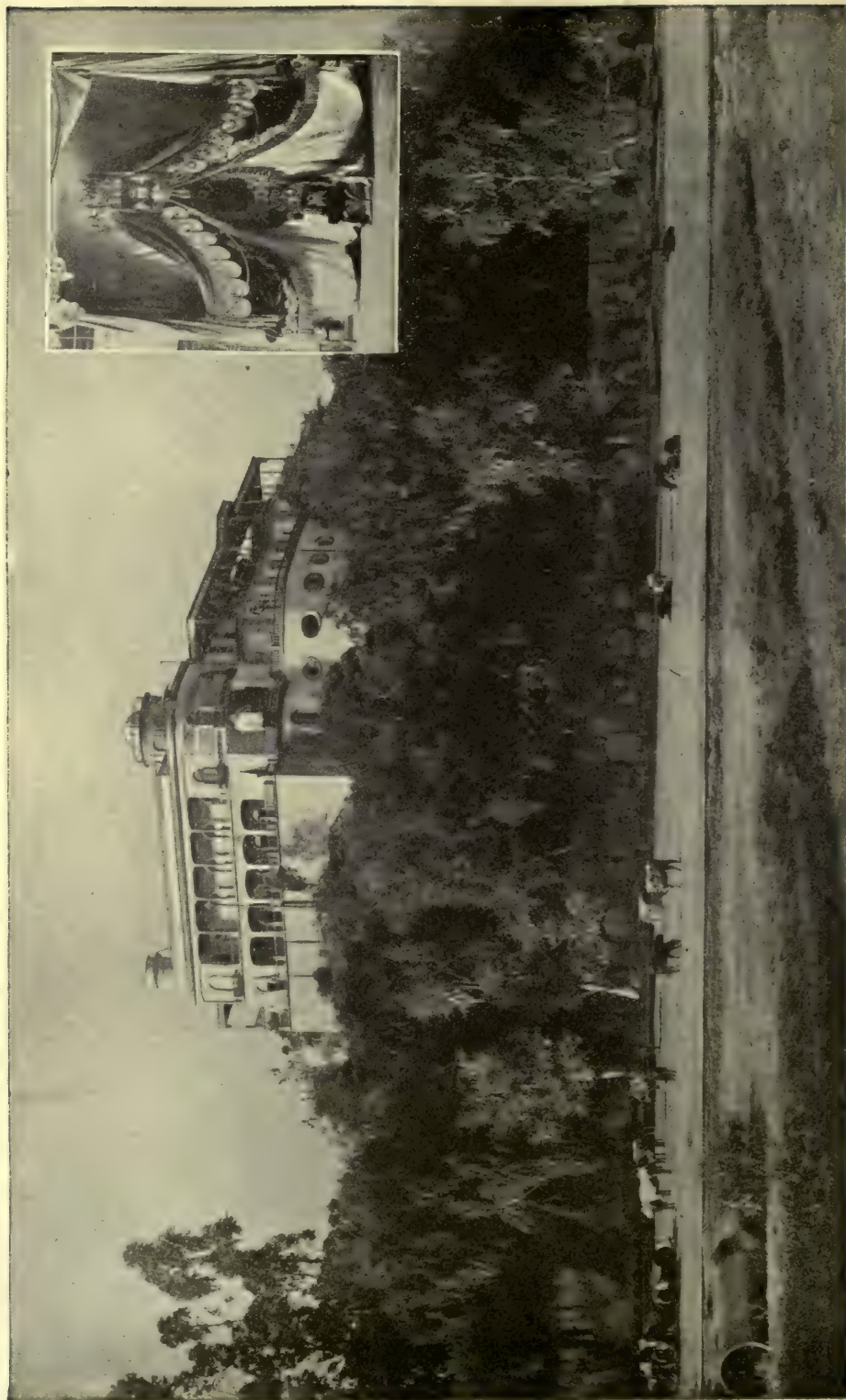


CHARLOTTE, EX-EMPRESS OF MEXICO

The sister of Leopold, King of the Belgians, and the wife of the Emperor Maximilian, she shared with the latter his troubled reign in Mexico. Her husband's tragic fate so affected her that her reason gave way under the grief and excitement.



RUINS OF THE HOUSE WHERE MAXIMILIAN STAYED DURING THE SIEGE OF MEXICO CITY



THE HISTORIC RESIDENCE OF THE RULERS OF MEXICO: THE PALACE OF CHAPULTEPEC
 Towering on a rocky hill and surrounded by a magnificent grove of cypresses, the palace of Chapultepec dates from 1783-85, and occupies the site where once stood the palace of the mighty Montezuma. For long it was the residence of the Mexican rulers, but of recent years it has been devoted to the housing of some of the executive departments of the government, including the official offices of the president. The inset picture shows the throne from which the ill-fated Emperor Maximilian directed his brief but momentous rule over Mexico.

of Guatemala, which embraced the states north of the Isthmus of Panama as far as the boundaries of the kingdom of New Spain. Here, though the revolution, so far as separation from Spain was concerned, was accomplished without bloodshed, civil war at once broke out between the two parties of the Serviles and the Liberals.

The former began, in opposition to the constitutional assembly, to carry through the union of Central America with the empire of Iturbide. This, however, involved them in the fall of the latter, which followed soon after, and destroyed their influence in the country, the separate divisions of which now took up the management of their own affairs under the guidance of the Liberals and became the small republics of Central America. Even this, however, did not entirely destroy the feeling of their kinship. Only Chiapa severed its connection with its old allies and attached itself to the Mexican republic. Guatemala, Honduras, San Salvador, Nicaragua and Costa Rica, on the other hand, formed themselves, April 1st, 1823, into a federal union which in 1825 chose its first president in the person of General

The States of Central America Acre. This, however, was the signal for the beginning of an incessant civil war which, while professedly defending the cause of federal or central principles, was in reality merely a struggle of self-seeking party-leaders for the possession of power.

Continuous attempts have been made, either by diplomatic methods or by resort to arms, to revive a confederation of all or some of the old states of Central America. While, however, these complications have in many cases seriously interrupted the steady progress of the republics concerned, the advantages which their union was to have produced have not been attained. It has never yet been possible to discover a form of government providing safeguards against the subjection of the weaker members of the union by the stronger states. For this reason, hitherto, every attempt at combination has shortly afterwards been followed by a revolution tending towards decentralisation.

The last attempt in this direction, the "Republica Mayor de Centro-America," created in 1896-97, although it left complete internal autonomy to the separate states, came to an end after a brief existence in 1898. The collapse of the throne of Maximilian marked the triumph of republican

principles over the whole of the American continent except Brazil. The threat of a French invasion under Junot in 1808 had, indeed, induced the Portuguese royal family to transfer the seat of government to Rio de Janeiro; but this was considered merely a temporary precautionary measure which was to make no change in the

Triumph of Republican Principles political relations between the mother country and the colonies. Circumstances, however, rendered the continuance of this state of affairs impossible. The revolutionary wave which passed over the Pyrenean state after the expulsion of Napoleon, the struggle for independence which was proceeding in the surrounding sister states, could not fail to exercise a strong influence on Brazilian affairs. As early as 1815, Brazil was raised to the dignity of a kingdom, an event which could not otherwise than considerably advance the efforts which were directed towards a separation from Portugal. Again, however, the issue was brought about by the condition of affairs in Portugal, and not by the situation in Brazil.

The movement in favour of a parliamentary form of government, which was set on foot in 1820 by Riego in Spain, spread also to the kingdom of Portugal, and thence across to Brazil. King John VI. was completely taken by surprise; and as his successor to the throne, Dom Pedro, placed himself at the head of the Liberal party, the latter easily attained its object—namely, the promise of a separate parliamentary constitution for Brazil. However, though the Liberals in the colony felt themselves conjointly responsible with those of Portugal, they were soon to learn that the Cortes of the mother country had ends in view quite different from those corresponding with their desires; for the latter asked for no less than the return of the court to Lisbon and the restoration of the Portuguese dominion in Brazil.

Brazil's Struggles for Independence The first of these objects was actually attained; John VI. returned to Lisbon, and Dom Pedro, who had renounced his succession in favour of his brothers and sisters, stayed behind in the first instance at Rio de Janeiro as viceroy.

The more manifest it became that the Cortes was aiming at again reducing Brazil to the condition of a province, the looser became the tie which united the colony to the mother country. At last

nothing was left to Dom Pedro himself but to tear the bond, and, on September 7th, 1822, to proclaim the complete independence of Brazil, which, a month later, was declared an empire.

Up to this point Dom Pedro, carried along by the national movement, had remained in accord with the large majority of his people. In the disputes, however, which in the following years arose in regard to questions of internal and foreign policy, this agreement began to be more and more disturbed. Finally, when the populace endeavoured to intimidate him by raising commotions, as it had done successfully and with his co-operation under John VI.,

inextinguishable hotbed hearth of constantly renewed republican agitations. The victorious campaign against Paraguay, though it raised the prestige of the country abroad, on the other hand involved it in serious financial difficulties, which were still further increased by the expenses arising out of the abolition of slavery, which had been resolved upon in 1871. The discussions connected with the passing of this measure filled up the political life of Brazil for years, and have also exercised a determining influence on the last remodelling of the constitution of the country. After Dom Pedro had long endeavoured, with the aid of Conservative



DOM PEDRO, EMPEROR OF BRAZIL AND KING OF PORTUGAL, AND HIS CONSORT
The invasion of Portugal by the French drove the royal family to Brazil. When Brazil gained its independence in 1822 Dom Pedro became emperor as Pedro I. But internal discontent causing his abdication in 1831 in favour of his son, he returned to Portugal, to find that the crown had been usurped by his brother, Dom Miguel, whereupon Dom Pedro issued a decree in favour of his daughter, with complete success. He died in 1834.

he resigned in 1831 in favour of his son, and soon afterwards ended his days at Lisbon. Nor was Pedro II. destined to die in his empire. Even during the time of his minority the adherents of a federal-republican party had attracted considerable notice amid the passionate struggles of party warfare. Their influence naturally fell again into the background during the time that Pedro II., who had been declared of full age before the proper time, was administering with great tact a remarkably liberal government. But even at that time the country did not enjoy a perfect or permanent peace. The province of Sao Paulo especially seemed to be an

Ministries, to solve the slavery question in such a way as to preserve all interests as far as possible, he found himself obliged, in 1888, to call in a Liberal Ministry which, immediately after its accession to office, declared for the unconditional abolition of slavery. By this measure it drove so large a portion of the population into the ranks of the Opposition that the latter was able, on November 15th, 1889, to organise a revolution to which the capital surrendered without an attempt at resistance. The combined Conservative and Federalist parties thereupon forced Dom Pedro to abdicate, and set up the republic of the United States of Brazil.



MEN WHO HAVE RULED AS PRESIDENTS IN CENTRAL AMERICA

The revolution of 1889 in Brazil was followed in 1891 by the inauguration of a new Constitution. Henceforth the old provinces were to form twenty-one self-governing states, the Federal Government retaining in its hands the maintenance of order, the currency, all fiscal matters and national defence. Executive authority was placed in the President's office, and the President was to be elected every four years by direct popular vote. To the National Congress, consisting of Senate and Chamber of Deputies, all legislative authority was entrusted. Manhood suffrage—soldiers and other classes of men excepted—was made the rule as in the rest of South America. Commercial development, the influx of foreign capital, the extension of railways, and very considerable immigration—mainly from Portugal, Spain, and Italy—have been notable in Brazil in recent years. To the increase of population from 20,000,000 in 1908 to 23,070,969 in 1913 immigration has very distinctly contributed. Although the Republican Government of Brazil has been less liable to revolution than in certain other South American countries, it has neither established any compulsory system of national education nor persuaded the people to make the best use of democratic institutions. Illiteracy, in fact, is too prevalent to permit the existence of a particularly intelligent or public spirited electorate.

Mexico has known but little internal peace since the movement against President Diaz succeeded in driving him from power and from the country in 1911. General Madero, who succeeded to the Presidency on November 6th, 1911, proved himself unable to govern the country, and unwisely tried to dispense with the official services of General Victoriano Huerta, whose military and organising capacities had been amply recognised by Porfirio Diaz. Three times did Madero dismiss and recall General Huerta to military command, and on the third recall, in February 1913, it was obvious that President Madero could not retain authority. Civil war had then been raging in Mexico City and the neighbourhood for some days, and more than 3,000 lives had been lost. The insurgents were led by General Felix Diaz, who had become possessed of the fleeting popularity

enjoyed by Madero. General Huerta, recognising the hopeless plight of President Madero, decided to join forces with Felix Diaz, and had no difficulty in persuading the Government troops under his command to transfer their allegiance.

No sooner had General Huerta withdrawn his support than Madero was arrested on a charge of "treason" to the republic. A few days later, on February 23, 1913, Madero and Pino Suarez, the ex-Vice-President, were put to death. The guilt of General Huerta was at once assumed both in Mexico and the United States. Huerta had already proclaimed himself President and his accession was approved by General Felix Diaz, on the understanding that an election of President should take place within six months' time. No such election took place, and the country was involved in civil war from February, 1913.

The United States Government regarded the condition of affairs in Mexico with grave disapproval, and though General Huerta's Presidency was recognised by Great Britain in May, and by Germany in June, 1913, President Wilson declared that the terms of recognition by the United States involved an immediate armistice, a free election of the President of the Mexican Republic, and an undertaking by General Huerta that he would not stand for election. These terms were not accepted by Huerta, who was ruling as a military dictator, but the United States occupied Vera Cruz, April 21, 1914, and he was soon forced to resign. Several factions contended for supremacy and there was virtual anarchy for a time, but finally, in 1915, representatives of various American republics decided to recognise General Venustiano Carranza as being the strongest force in the unhappy country. Further occurrences, including the invasion of Mexico, are told under the History of the United States.

The Great War in Europe necessarily had its effect in Latin America. Ships belonging to the American republics were sunk by submarines, and the majority of the nations severed relations with the German Empire, or even declared war. A few, as Mexico, Argentina, and Venezuela, attempted to preserve neutrality, but, in general, the efforts of the German propagandists utterly failed.

**Progress
in
Brazil**

**Civil War
in
Mexico**

**General
Huerta,
Dictator**



THE AIRSHIP AMERICA LEAVING ITS SHED



A VIEW SHOWING THE AIRSHIP'S GAS APPARATUS



THE HEADQUARTERS AT VIRGO BAY, SPITZBERGEN

TO THE POLE BY AIRSHIP: WELLMAN'S FUTILE ATTEMPT IN 1907

A notable aerial attempt to reach the North Pole was made on September 2nd, 1907, by Walter Wellman, an American journalist, in his airship, the America, an attempt, however, which utterly failed in its object, the airship being beaten back by storms and forced on to an Arctic glacier, the party returning a few weeks later.



A MOUNTAIN OF ICE OFF THE COAST OF GREENLAND



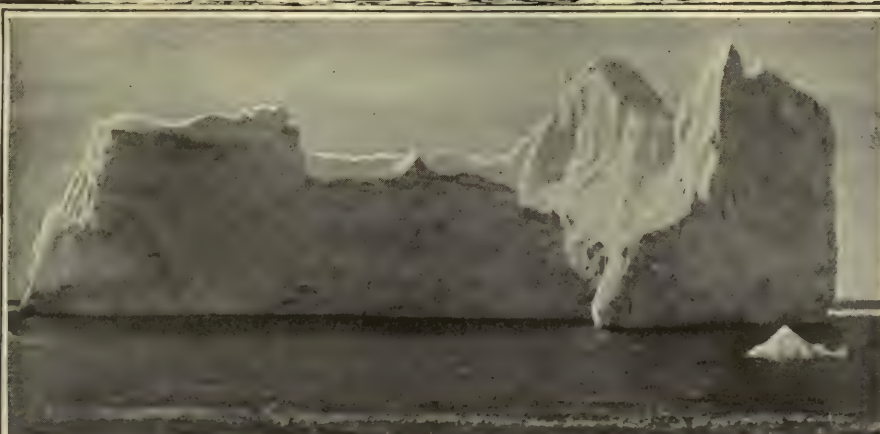
AN ICE WALL, SHOWING ARCH, NEAR ST. JOHN'S, NEWFOUNDLAND



ON THE LABRADOR COAST: A BERG WITH ITS CONNECTION UNDER WATER

THE FROZEN TERRORS OF THE POLAR SEAS

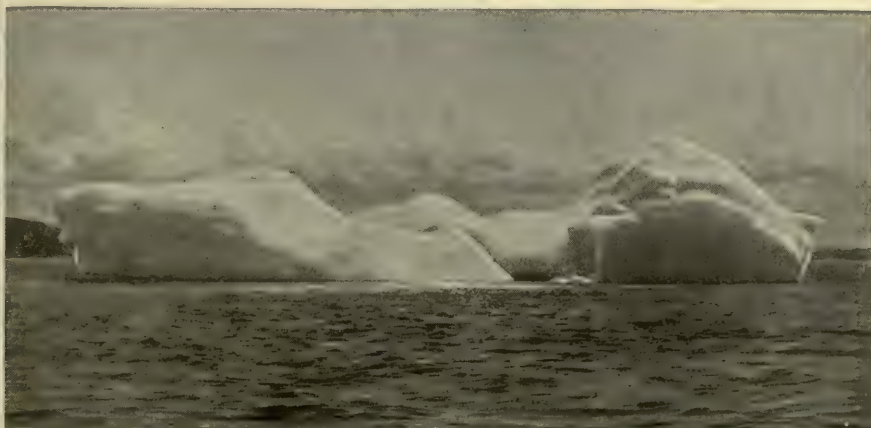
Photos: Shepstone



ON THE DANGEROUS COAST OF ST. JOHN'S, NEWFOUNDLAND



A HUGE ICE-CLIFF OFF THE SHORES OF LABRADOR



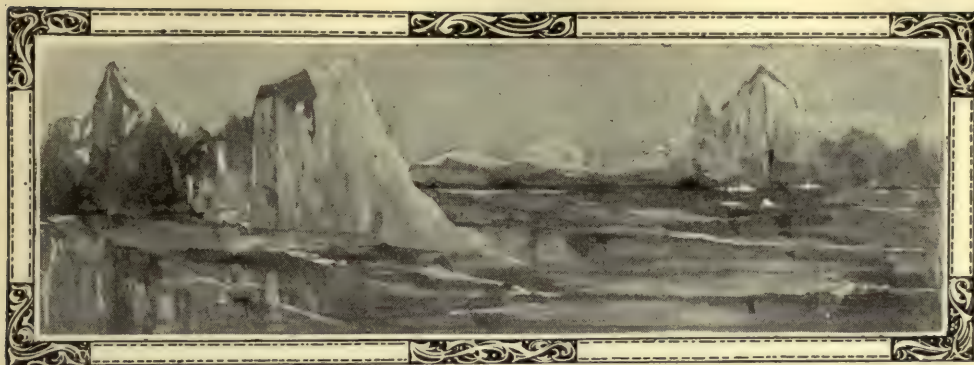
FLOATING MASS ON THE EXTREME NORTH OF NEWFOUNDLAND

FLOATING ICE MOUNTAINS IN THE NORTH ATLANTIC

Photos: Shepstone



MAP OF THE ARCTIC REGIONS, SHOWING THE ROUTES OF NORTH POLE EXPLORERS
 Although Arctic exploration began with Alfred the Great and the discovery of Greenland in the tenth century, it was not until after John Cabot sighted the coast of Labrador in 1497 that the possibilities of a North-east Passage and a North-west Passage suggested themselves to sea-going adventurers. Since that period our geographical knowledge of the northern regions has vastly increased with each successive century, the nineteenth being notable on account of the excellent work accomplished in this direction. In this map the farthest points attained in each of the forty-five expeditions of the last 400 years are indicated by a +.



THE WORLD AROUND THE POLES A RECORD OF POLAR EXPLORATION

By George Sandeman, M.A.

THE GLAMOUR AND ROMANCE OF THE SEARCH FOR THE NORTH POLE

THE story of Polar exploration is one of rich and varied interest, just as it has always been a rich and complex interest that has led the adventurer into high latitudes. We have often seen elaborate arguments in defence of Arctic and Antarctic enterprise, but these apologies have appeared to us equally unnecessary and inadequate. Unnecessary, because the impulse to go and see is as deep and unquestionable as human nature itself. Inadequate, because the apologists appeal to one or two partial interests, such as the interest of trade at one period, the interest of naval efficiency at another, or, as in our own time, to the interest of international rivalry or of scientific investigation. The real interest is more concrete and complex than any of these things or all of them together.

No one, for instance, can spend an hour with an Arctic explorer without realising the enormous imaginative spell which these mysterious desolations have cast over his mind. They call him incessantly, and he inevitably returns to them. Their

The Call of the North vast simplicity accords with some profound mode of the human spirit, such as is mirrored in the "Ancient Mariner" or in the majestic phantasms of northern mythology. The mind once touched with the North seems to turn to it as certainly as the compass-card; and doubtless the same fascination enters deeply into the interest with which we follow the voyages of a Barentz or a Nansen. Or, again, no one

can follow these voyages, even in their barest records, without realising that those who have accomplished such arduous and even heroic labours have been men indeed, and that because they have been such men they have sought such labours. "There increaseth in my heart," says

Explorers of the Polar Seas Sebastian Cabot, "a great flame of desire to attempt some notable thing." "It was the only thing of the world," says Martin Frobisher, "that was left yet undone, whereby a notable mind might be made famous and fortunate."

Is it too much to say that this magnanimous ardour and fortitude, which have been a hundred times proved through unimaginable sufferings and endurance to the threshold of death, and still characterise, as nobly as ever, the explorers of to-day, are worth incomparably more than any results whatever that may be achieved by them? Is it too much to say that our interest in Polar exploration is inevitably first of all the human interest, centring round intrepid men and the great maritime nations that have bred them, and only afterwards round the geographical features that have been mapped and the scientific observations that have been recorded?

We no longer seek commercial openings through Polar seas, and it is possible that Arctic enterprise has done all that it will ever do for trade. But it has done a great deal. It gave us trade with Russia, and established the Hudson's Bay Company



ARCTIC SEA AT MIDNIGHT: SCENE AT THE MOUTH OF THE COPPER MINE RIVER



A WINTER VIEW OF FORT ENTERPRISE



A CAMP IN THE FOREST: THE EXPLORERS PREPARING A RESTING PLACE

FRANKLIN AND HIS PARTY IN THE ARCTIC REGIONS, 1819-22



THE EXPEDITION CROSSING LAKE PROSPEROUS



THE EXPLORERS DOUBLING CAPE BARROW ON JULY 25TH. 1821
SCENES IN FRANKLIN'S FIRST GREAT POLAR EXPEDITION

in the heart of Canada. It led directly to the cod fishery of the Newfoundland coast, and to the enormous whale industry of the Spitzbergen seas.

The chief results to be expected from Arctic and Antarctic exploration are now of a scientific nature, and the observations that have been obtained, and will yet be obtained, are of peculiar importance to a considerable group of sciences. Geography, geology, oceanography, magnetism, meteorology and biology are outstanding examples. Sir John Murray has well said that "every department of natural knowledge would be enriched by systematic observations as to the order in which phenomena co-exist and follow each other in regions of the earth's surface about which we know very little or are wholly ignorant. It is one of the great objects of science to collect observations of the kind here indicated, and it may be safely said that without them we can never arrive at a right understanding of the phenomena by which we are surrounded, even in the habitable parts of the globe." It is this indissoluble unity of natural conditions over the face of our planet that gives such very high significance to the scientific study of Polar regions. To take an example. We learn during the year 1909 that the centre of the Antarctic region, far from being, as was generally supposed, an area of peculiar calm, is, in fact, swept by terrific gales; and this involves a new interpretation of those weather conditions elsewhere, from which that region of calms had been erroneously inferred.

In the same year we learn that coal measures had been discovered in the Antarctic continent, showing that this region has at one period been characterised by a warm climate—a fact which inevitably modifies our estimate of the history of the globe. It is because of this interdependence of Polar conditions with those

King Alfred's Interest in the Arctic

in all other parts of the earth that a modern expedition to high latitudes is in itself a microcosm of the sciences. The impulse to penetrate the northern seas is as old as English history, and the first chronicler of an Arctic expedition was King Alfred the Great. But we may take it as certain that in the early days there was a great deal more discovery than we shall ever know of. From the eighth to the tenth centuries the adven-

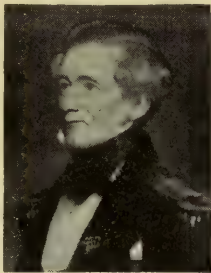
turous Scandinavians were ranging over the northern ocean and descending on every coast. In 861 they discovered Iceland; but when, a few years later, many Norwegian colonists made their home there, they found the remains of an even earlier Christian settlement. A regular traffic sprang up between Norway and Iceland, and Iceland, in its turn, became a centre of geographical discovery. Thus Eric the Red, sailing thence in 983, fell in with the east coast of Greenland, and here, also, little colonies were quickly established. Another Icelandic ship, driven far south-westward out of her course in 1000, reached at length a finely wooded country and ascended a river, certainly in Newfoundland or Canada, and brought back reports of a land which, because of its wild grapes or berries, was called Vinland.

A more deliberate kind of exploration followed these fortuitous expeditions. Richard III. of England sent ships to Iceland for purposes of discovery, and within a century later the question of navigation to the North Pole was seriously discussed.

The Cabot Family of Explorers

In the notable enterprises which followed, England took a leading part. Henry VII., who had failed to secure the services of Columbus, granted in 1497 a patent of discovery to the Venetian John Cabot, who had settled in Bristol with his three sons, of whom Sebastian was the most famous. "Understanding," says the latter, "by reason of the sphere that if I should sail by way of north-west I should by a shorter tract come into India, I thereupon caused the king to be advertised of my desire, who immediately commanded two caravels to be furnished with all things appertaining to the voyage." Together, the father and son sailed to the west, and discovered Newfoundland, which they named *Prima Vista*; but they did not pursue the American coast north of 56°.

Newfoundland had already been visited, and named *Terra de Bacalhaos*, or "Land of Cod-fish," by the Portuguese Cortereal in 1464, under the patronage of Alfonso V.; and his son, Gaspar Cortereal, set out from Lisbon with two ships in 1500 for the north-west passage, and visited and described Greenland, Labrador and the River St. Lawrence. In subsequent voyages Gaspar, and later his brother Miguel, were lost; but these expeditions, and another sent in search of them, secured for Portugal



F. W. Beechey



Sir Edward Belcher



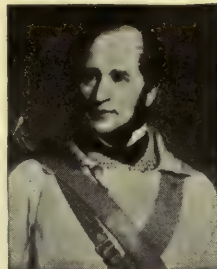
Robert McCormick



Sir Horatio T. Austin



Sir Henry Kellett



Sir Robert M'Clure



Sir Richard Collinson



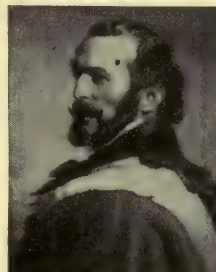
Sir John Richardson



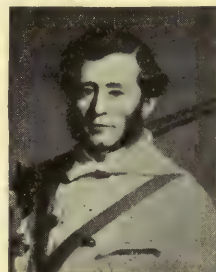
William Kennedy



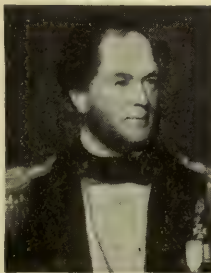
William Penny



Dr. John Rae



Sir F. Leopold McClintock



Sir Erasmus Ommanney



Sir George H. Richards



Sir Edward A. Inglefield



Sherard Osborn



Sir Allen Young



Alexander Stewart



William R. Hobson



David Walker

BRAVE EXPLORERS OF THE ARCTIC SEAS

The above group contains the portraits of hardy sailors who commanded expeditions of exploration to the Arctic regions as well as of some of the many daring seamen who went in search of the missing Sir John Franklin.

the valuable Newfoundland fisheries. King Henry VIII., persuaded by Mr. Robert Thorne, of Bristol, "with very weighty and substantial reasons to set forth a discovery even to the North Pole," sent out the *Dominus Vobiscum* and another ship in 1527, "having in them divers cunning men," of whom one was a canon of St. Paul's, London,

Unfortunate and a great mathematician. **Enterprise of** This genuinely scientific enterprise met with ill-fortune; one of the ships was cast away north of Newfoundland, and the other returned after less than five months. The attempt was repeated in 1536, when the *Trinity* and *Minion* sailed from Gravesend with a company of six score, of whom thirty were gentlemen "desirous to see the strange things of the world." Having reached Newfoundland, they fell into the extremity of distress for want of food, and were only saved by the welcome arrival of a French vessel, which they immediately seized upon, and so returned to England.

It should be made clear that the central idea in all Polar exploration until the end of the eighteenth century was the discovery of a practicable trade route by sea from the Atlantic to the Pacific, either round the north of America, or round the north of Russia, or straight across the Pole. It should also be made clear that this project, which appears so fantastic now, was not at that time in the least fantastic, because the theory was universally held, unquestioned, that ice could not be formed in the open sea. It was accepted as a matter of course that ice was formed only in rivers and along coast-lines.

It is obvious that if this theory had been in accordance with fact there was every reason to expect an open route somewhere between the Atlantic and the Pacific through Polar seas. Not until the early years of the nineteenth century was it thoroughly realised that the Arctic

Navigation ice-pack is, so far as navigation **Blocked by** is concerned, practically a **Ice-packs** solid body. Of course, both the north-east and the north-west passages exist, and have been traversed by ships. But they do not exist in that sense in which they were sought for by early mariners. For all practical purposes, however, they are non-existent. They are not ice-free routes. A well-organised expedition set out from England in 1553 for the discovery, not of

the north-western passage—which had been sought hitherto—but of the north-east passage to Cathay. The plan was due to Sebastian Cabot, whom Edward VI. had created "grand pilot of England" and "Governor of the Mystery and Company of the Merchants Adventurers for the discovery of regions, dominions, islands, and places unknown."

Sir Hugh Willoughby commanded the *Bona Esperanza* (120 tons), Richard Chancellor and Stephen Burrough were in the *Edward Bonadventure* (160 tons), and Cornelius Durfoorth was in the *Bona Confidentia* (90 tons). Willoughby and the whole of the company of the *Bona Esperanza* and of the *Bona Confidentia* perished on the eastern coast of Lapland during the following winter; but Chancellor, who had missed his consorts, reached Archangel in safety, and having visited the tsar at Moscow, took his ship back to England in the following spring, carrying a letter from the tsar to Edward VI.

The prospect thus opened of trade with Muscovy led Queen Mary to send a commission in return. Chancellor sailed again on this errand in 1555, with **Tragic Fate of** instructions to "use all ways **Queen Mary's** and means possible to learn **Commission** how men may pass from Russia, either by land or by sea, to Cathay." He was followed, in 1556, by Stephen Burrough in the *Searchthrift*, whose mission it was to explore the sea to the eastward. Burrough reached and discovered *Novaya Zemlya*, *Vaigach Island* and the *Kara Strait*, and returned in safety.

The other ships, after accomplishing the voyage to Archangel, came to a disastrous end. Returning with a Russian envoy on board, the *Edward Bonadventure* was cast away on the Scottish coast, where the ambassador was with difficulty saved, but Chancellor and most of his crew perished; and the two other ships were lost with all hands in the North Sea. But a very considerable step had been made in Arctic discovery, and the beginning of the Russian trade by the Muscovy Company had been established.

The next attempt was in the direction of the north-west passage. Martin Frobisher, one of the most adventurous seamen of a most adventurous period, had urged the project for many years before he was placed in command of the *Gabriel* (35 tons), the *Michael* (30 tons), and a pinnace of 10 tons. He sailed in June,

THE SEARCH FOR THE NORTH POLE

1576, from Greenwich, Queen Elizabeth waving her hand to them from the shore. Reaching the coast of Labrador, he sailed northward among the ice, and discovered the bay which is known by his name.

This voyage, in which Frobisher thought, erroneously, that he had found promise of gold, was followed by two others, in the two following years, to the same region and to the west coast of Greenland; but their results, however, were regarded as discouraging in respect both of the north-west passage and of the gold-mines. In 1580, the Muscovy Company sent Arthur Pet in the *George* (40 tons), and Charles Jackman in the *William*

the Cumberland peninsula, where he named Mount Raleigh and Exeter Sound, as well as the two forelands of that sound—viz., Cape Dyer and Cape Walsingham. He returned in the two following years, sailing up Cumberland Sound, and exploring the coasts of Labrador and of Greenland; and in his third voyage he discovered the strait which is known by the name of Hudson.

Davis's observations rightly confirmed his belief in a north-west passage, but he failed to persuade the merchant adventurers to support further attempts. A great advance towards the discovery of the north-eastern passage was next



IN SEARCH OF A NORTH-WEST PASSAGE: PARRY'S EXPEDITION AT WINTER ISLAND

By calling a sailor, Sir Edward William Parry made altogether five expeditions to the Arctic regions, the second, in 1819, being in search of a north-west passage, earning for him the sum of \$25,000 offered by parliament. His last, and perhaps most famous, voyage was that of 1827, when he and his party made a gallant though unsuccessful attempt to reach the Pole on sledges from Spitzbergen. This picture shows an exciting incident during his second voyage, which lasted three years, to the Arctic regions, and during which the Fury and Hecla Strait was discovered.

(20 tons) to the north-eastern sea. Reaching Vaigach Island, the two explorers discovered and passed through Yugor Strait between it and the mainland, but they were stopped by the ice in the Kara Sea, and had to return through the strait a month later. The *George* returned to England, but the *William* was lost on her way to Iceland.

The sanguine and intrepid John Davis, in his three voyages towards the north-west passage, now made important geographical discoveries in the strait which bears his name. In 1585 he proceeded with the *Sunshine* (50 tons) and the *Moonshine* (35 tons) to the west coast of Greenland, and thence northward to

made by William Barentz, the Dutch pilot, in the last of his three famous voyages of 1594, 1595, and 1596. For twenty years before that time, the merchants of Amsterdam had been trading round the north of Scandinavia to Archangel; and wishing to extend their operations farther eastward they had been advised by Peter Plancius, a celebrated geographer, to seek a passage round the northern end of Novaya Zemlya, because the course through the Kara Strait, at the southern end of that island, and through the Kara Sea beyond, was so often impracticable because of ice. This suggestion was in accordance with the theory which we have already noticed,



A WINTER VIEW OF FORT FRANKLIN



LAUNCHING BOATS ACROSS A REEF OPPOSITE MOUNT CONYBEARE

SCENES IN FRANKLIN'S SECOND EXPEDITION TO THE ARCTIC SEAS, IN 1825-27

as generally accepted at that time. In the expeditions which the merchants now sent out for that purpose, Barentz, who was a well-educated man, besides being a first-rate seaman, contributed to geographical science the first real knowledge of the conditions of the ice between Novaya Zemlya and Spitzbergen. His first voyage, sailing June 4th, 1594, was in the *Mercurius* (100 tons), accompanied by a fishing smack. They sighted Novaya Zemlya a month later, and sailed up to its north-eastern extremity, vainly seeking an eastward passage through the ice-pack.

The second expedition, of the following year, in which seven vessels took part, started too late in the season, and only reached the entrance to the Sea of Kara, at the southern end of the great island, when it had to return. The third voyage, which set out on May 13th, 1596, was that on which Barentz secured his great celebrity, and on which he died. A large reward had been offered by the Dutch Government to anyone who should complete a voyage to China by the north-eastern route, a feat only accomplished by Nordenskiöld in 1878. The

Notable Discoveries of Barentz

Amsterdam merchants commissioned two ships, in one of which Barentz sailed as chief pilot. Because of the erroneous impression above mentioned, Barentz determined to keep far out to westward, in order to secure open water. In doing so he discovered Bear Island, south of Spitzbergen, and a few days later found himself on the west coast of Spitzbergen, a land of which he was the first discoverer.

Returning to Bear Island, the two ships parted company, one proceeding northward, and the other, with Barentz, steering eastward. From July 2nd they beat against head winds, and among packs of drifting ice, until, on the 17th, they came upon the west coast of Novaya Zemlya at 74° 40' N., and thence sailed northward along it. Rounding its northern extremity they were, on August 26th, imprisoned by the ice in Barentz Bay, or "Ice Haven," on the eastern coast. "Here," writes De Veer, the chronicler of the expedition, "we were forced, in great cold, poverty, misery and grief to stay all that winter."

Realising that their ship had sustained such damage by the pressure of the ice that she could not take the sea again, the seventeen stout-hearted Dutchmen abandoned her, and built a strong and capacious

timber house out of driftwood, which they found in abundance, and out of planks torn from the ship. Great drifts of snow surrounded the house, and protected it from cold. Bears and white foxes visited them in great abundance; the fat of the bears was used for lamps, the flesh of the foxes for food, and their skins for clothing.

Explorers Imprisoned by the Ice

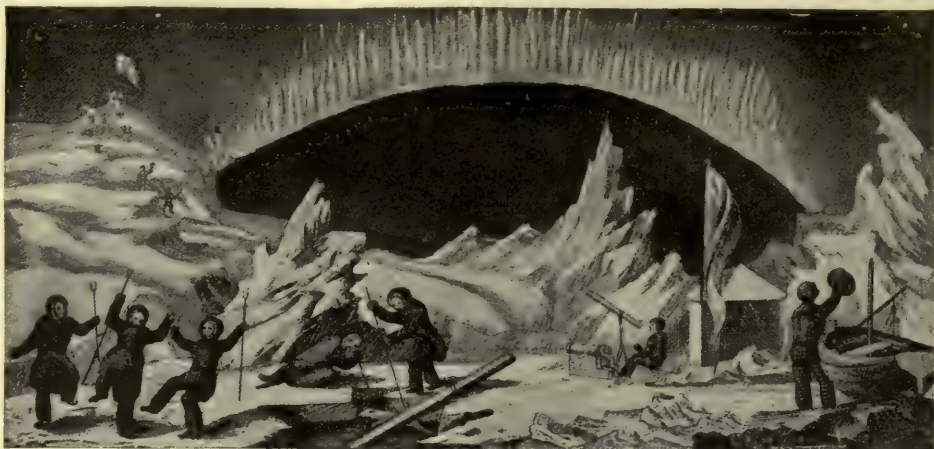
Nearly three centuries later this house was discovered intact. On September 9th, 1871, Elling Carlsen, a Norwegian ship-master, having entered Ice Haven, found the place exactly as they had left it, with the old Dutch clock on the wall, the cooking pots on the fireplace, and the weapons and instruments and books lying about as if in an inhabited cabin. Among the books was a "History of China," which Barentz had been studying because China was to be the ultimate end of his voyage. These relics are now in the Foreign Office at the Hague.

On January 16th the little company perceived "a certain redness in the sky," and on the 27th "we saw the sun in his full roundness above the horizon, which made us all glad, and we gave God hearty thanks for His grace showed unto us, that that glorious light appeared to us again." But the weather grew colder yet, and it was not until June 13th that their two open boats were repaired and provisioned for a boat voyage. Setting forth on the same day to return by the way that he had come, Barentz, who was so ill that he had to be carried to the boats, died on the seventh day. Those who remained, after enduring extraordinary hardships, brought their open boats into harbour at Kola.

No success having attended the attempts to discover either a north-east or a north-west passage, the Muscovy Company commissioned Henry Hudson, in 1607, to sail to Japan straight across the North Pole. He set out from Greenwich, on May 1st, in the *Hopewell* (80 tons), on this astonishing enterprise.

Hudson's Fruitful Voyage

The voyage led to considerable commercial results. Hudson's reports of the abundance of whales and sea-horses in the Polar seas were the beginning of a great and valuable industry. Its scientific results were also notable. Hudson was the first of the northern explorers to observe the dip of the magnetic needle, and he added not a little to geographical knowledge. Falling in with the east coast of Greenland, which



PLANTING THE BRITISH FLAG ON THE POSITION OF THE MAGNETIC POLE



THE VICTORY UNDER PROTECTING WALLS OF SNOW IN FELIX HARBOUR



THE UNION JACK IN GRAHAM'S VALLEY

THE EXPEDITION THAT LED TO THE DISCOVERY OF THE MAGNETIC POLE
This Arctic expedition, fitted out in 1829 by Sir Felix Booth, was under the command of Sir John Ross and his nephew, Sir James Clark Ross. It was during this expedition that the latter explorer discovered the North Magnetic Pole.



H.M.S. TERROR ICEBOUND IN FOX'S CHANNEL



BUILDING SNOW WALLS AROUND THE SHIP: THE CREW CAUGHT IN A GALE



THE BREAKING UP OF THE ICE AROUND THE SHIP

SCENES IN SIR GEORGE BACK'S ARCTIC EXPEDITION, 1836-37

Before his Arctic voyage of 1836-37, illustrated in the above pictures, Sir George Back had shared in three Polar expeditions under Sir John Franklin, and had gone in search of Sir John Ross when that explorer was supposed to be lost.



THE ARCTIC COUNCIL DISCUSSING PLANS FOR THE RELIEF OF SIR JOHN FRANKLIN

On May 18th, 1845, Sir John Franklin, then almost sixty years of age, set out on what proved to be his last voyage, the expedition having for its object the discovery of a north-west passage through Lancaster Sound and Bering Strait. When the famous explorer failed to return, numerous expeditions vainly set out in search of him, the above picture showing a council of Arctic experts discussing ways and means for reaching the missing party.

he named "Hold with Hope," he explored it northward until stopped by ice in 73° N. Thence he proceeded north-east and followed the western coast of Spitzbergen to its northern point. Steering again north-west, with the intention of rounding the north of Greenland, he passed the 80th parallel, but failed to find a passage through the ice, and returned to England after discovering an island, which he called "Hudson's Tutches," but which was afterwards named Jan Mayen.

The Fate of the Brave Hudson

His second voyage, in 1608, in which he attempted to find a passage through the ice between Spitzbergen and Novaya Zemlya, ended in disappointment; in the following year he explored the east coast of North America southward from Newfoundland and discovered the Hudson River. His fourth and most notable voyage was undertaken in the *Discovery* (55 tons) in 1610, with a view to finding the north-west passage. Passing the northern point of Labrador, Hudson entered the great enclosed sea which is known as Hudson Bay, where he hauled the ship aground and was frozen in. In the following June, as he was working the *Discovery* out of the bay, the ship's

company suddenly mutinied and abandoned Hudson, his son, and seven others in a small boat amid the ice.

It was now that the English and Dutch whalers began to frequent every year the seas about Spitzbergen, and soon increased to great numbers, so that knowledge with regard to that group of islands, and especially with regard to the seasonal conditions and yearly variations of the Polar ice-pack, gradually accumulated during the next two centuries from their reports. The names of many skippers, such as Poole, Baffin, Fotherby, Edge, and especially Scoresby, are associated with various discoveries and generalised observations made by these whaling expeditions. It became gradually established, for instance, that ice is formed in deep and open sea, far from land, and even in rough weather; that the Polar ice-pack is absolutely impenetrable; that its southern limits vary considerably from one season to another, and that the 81st degree of latitude, or at most the 82nd, is the highest to which ships can go in any year. But these conclusions were not fully realised for two centuries after the time when Hudson's discoveries

The Truth About the Ice-pack

THE SEARCH FOR THE NORTH POLE

brought the whaling fleets into being. A great advance was made to the north-west by William Baffin, in the *Discovery*, in the year 1616. Passing through Davis Strait into Baffin Bay, he entered, and named, Wolstenholme Sound and Smith Sound, on the north-west coast of Greenland, reaching the latitude of 78° N.; and then, turning westward and southward, he discovered and named Jones Sound and Lancaster Sound. In the latter, though he did not know it, he had found the actual gate to the north-west passage. Baffin

Gate to the North-west Passage

was followed in 1631 by Luke Fox, who had obtained from Charles I. a pinnace, the *Charles* (80 tons), and a letter to the Emperor of Japan. Fox, whose garrulous and vainglorious narrative is exceedingly entertaining, passed through Hudson Strait, and coasted round a considerable portion of Hudson Bay, and, returning, discovered the channel and the promontory that bear his name. In the bay he fell in with Captain James, a somewhat incompetent navigator, who was on the same quest and carried a similar letter. An unsuccessful voyage by Captain Wood

to Novaya Zemlya in 1676 completes the story of Arctic exploration to the end of the seventeenth century.

The Hudson Bay Company, which had been formed in 1670 for trade with the North American Indians in furs and skins, and had received the absolute concession of all lands which might be discovered through Hudson Strait, was expressly bound by its charter to continue the work of exploration and in particular to search for a passage to the South Seas. For this purpose, as well as to follow up a native report of copper mines, an expedition in the *Albert* and the *Discovery* was sent out under Knight in 1719, but was never heard of again. Later voyages under Scroggs in 1722, and Middleton in 1741, failed in their main object, and in 1742 a reward of \$100,000 was offered by the British Government for the discovery of a route to the Pacific through Hudson Strait. William Moor and Francis Smith in 1746, and Samuel Hearne in 1769, undertook unsuccessful voyages with this purpose.

In the meantime, active researches were being promoted on the North Siberian coast by Peter the Great, who commissioned Vitus Behring, a Dane, in 1725,



GRAVES IN THE ARCTIC ICE: THE BURIAL PLACE OF FRANKLIN'S COMRADES

Though many search expeditions, public and private, British and American, beginning in 1848, set out in quest of Sir John Franklin and his party, it was not till 1859 that traces of the unfortunate voyagers were discovered. It was then ascertained that Sir John Franklin had died on June 11th, 1847, and that every member of the party had perished.

to sail northward from Kamchatka. Shipwrights were sent with Behring to the Pacific coast, and there two vessels, the Gabriel and the Fortuna, were built. Sailing in 1728, Behring discovered the strait between America and Asia. In a later voyage, 1740, he set out from Okhotsk with the St. Peter and

Behring's Discoveries and Death

St. Paul, explored the American coast and the Aleutian Islands, and discovered and named Mount St. Elias. His ship was wrecked on Bering Island, where the great seaman died in December, 1741. The New Siberian Islands, rich in fossil ivory, were discovered in 1770 by a Russian merchant in a sledge journey over the frozen sea, and were surveyed by officers of the Russian Government in 1809.

During the eighteenth century the whole of the northern coast-line of Russia and Siberia was systematically explored by government expeditions. Thus, the sea passages from Archangel to the River Obi and from the latter to the Yenesei River were successfully made in 1738; though the great northern promontory of Taimyr, terminating in Cape Chelyuskin, was not rounded by a ship for more than a century afterwards. It was, however, nearly doubled by Pronchishchef in 1736, who died in winter quarters near the cape; and his lieutenant, Chelyuskin, reached the cape in sledges in 1742.

The rise of Polar exploration as a definite, determined and continuous aim may be traced to the year 1773, when a Mr. Daines Barrington, having collected all available knowledge on the subject, read a series of papers to the Royal Society. Arctic research now began to enter on its scientific era. The society petitioned the king; the government's reply was favourable, and the bombs Racehorse (Captain Phipps) and Carcass (Captain Lutwidge) sailed from the Nore in June, 1773.

Scientific Era of Arctic Research

Horatio Nelson, then a mid-shipman, accompanied the expedition. The two ships reached 80° 48' N., north of Spitzbergen, and worked closely along the edge of the ice-pack throughout twenty degrees of longitude, without finding any passage through the ice. This conclusion was confirmed by other expeditions which followed. Captain Buchan, with the whalers Dorothea and Trent, the last-named being commanded by the

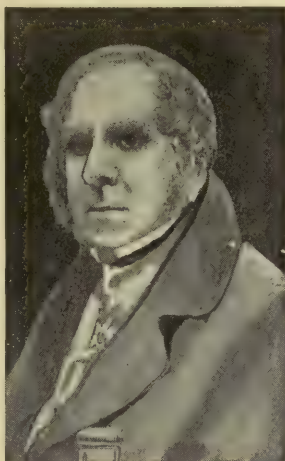
celebrated Franklin, sailed in 1818, and attacked the ice-pack to the north of Spitzbergen in vain; Captain Clavering, in the brig Griper, made the same attempt in 1823, with the same failure; and Admiral Lutke, of the Russian Navy, in the following year, found the ice barrier equally impenetrable in the seas between Novaya Zemlya and Spitzbergen. These surveys of the ice established once for all the important principle that no ship could sail to the Pole, and that all further exploration northward must be made by sledges. This principle, which has been only partially modified by Nansen, determined the epoch-making enterprise of Parry, with whom the modern era of Arctic exploration begins.

Edward Parry had taken part in four Arctic expeditions before he sailed, in 1827, in the Hecla, with a view to travelling in sledge-boats from Spitzbergen to the Pole. Leaving his ship in Hecla Cove, on the north shore of Spitzbergen, he set out on Midsummer Day with two flat-bottomed boats on runners, each boat having fourteen men on board. They travelled 200 miles by water, and then

The Great Sir John Franklin

dragged their boats for 92 miles over broken ice-floes; but they never reached the solid pack at all, and the drift of the ice southward soon made further progress impossible. Parry realised that he had left his base several months too late in the season. On July 23rd he reached his highest point, at 82° 43' N., a latitude which remained the "farthest north" for many years to come.

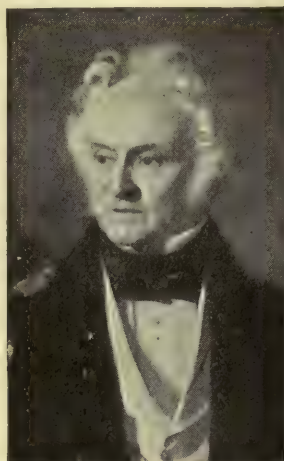
Early in the nineteenth century the tide of discovery set strongly towards the labyrinth of promontories, islands and channels to the north of Canada, and gradually, by one experiment after another, a track was found through the maze, and the north-west passage was accomplished. The central figure in this chapter of Arctic exploration will always be that of the gallant Sir John Franklin, whose disaster was the occasion of a swarm of expeditions to these waters, so that his death did more for geographical knowledge than his life had done. Actually, however, Franklin, when he died on the coast of King William Land, had solved the great problem, and had found a passage by sea from Davis Strait to the straits south of Wollaston and Victoria Land, which were known to lead to Bering Strait. That is to say, he had united a known track on the east with



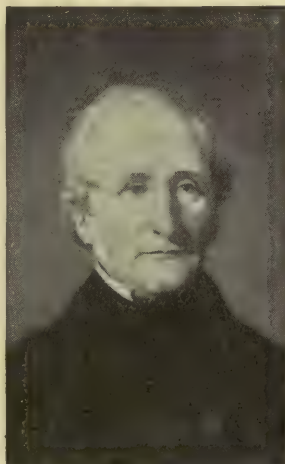
Sir John Ross



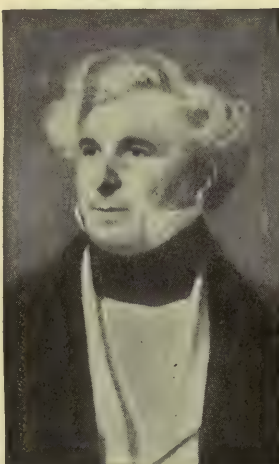
Sir John Franklin



Sir William E. Parry



Sir Edward Sabine



Sir James Clark Ross



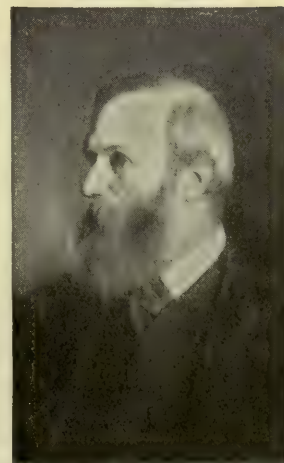
Rochfort Maguire



Thomas E. L. Moore



Sir George S. Nares



B. Leigh Smith

FAMOUS BRITISH EXPLORERS OF THE POLAR SEAS

a known track on the west. The expeditions which took part in the exploration of the north-west during last century are far too numerous even for mention; for instance, more than forty went out to seek for Franklin within the ten years which followed his death. We can only name the most important enterprises in a great series which lasted throughout the century. John Ross, a naval commander, sailed in 1818 with the *Isabella* (385 tons) and the *Alexander* (252 tons) to Baffin Bay, to inquire into the probability of a north-west passage. Parry was in command of the smaller vessel. Ross confirmed Baffin's observations of Wolstenholme Sound and of Smith Sound, and named the two capes at the entrance to the latter, Cape Isabella and Cape Alexander. Parry, in the following year, in the first of his memorable voyages, did better service with the *Hecla* (375 tons) and the *Griper* (180 tons). With orders particularly to explore Lancaster Sound, he entered it August 1st, 1819, and ran up it before an easterly gale. Passing through a strait which he named Barrow Strait, he found his ship's compasses at first sluggish, and then dominated merely by the attraction of the ship. He discovered and named Wellington Channel, and on September 26th, as the ice was closing around them, the *Hecla* and *Griper* went into winter quarters on the south coast of Melville Island. During this winter, Captain Sabine, who had sailed with Parry as astronomer, made observations on magnetism, on the pendulum and on the flora and fauna of the coast; indeed, all Parry's voyages were notable for the most assiduous attention to scientific

work. In the following summer, the commander, with a land party, explored the island. It was not until August 1st that the ships were free, and after coasting westward for three weeks, in great danger from the ice, they turned eastward to Lancaster Sound, and so to England. In this important expedition, North Devon, Cornwallis, Bathurst, Byam Martin and Melville Islands had been named and charted on the north of Parry's course,

and North Somerset and Banks Land on its southern shores. Parry's second voyage, in 1821 to 1823, with the *Hecla* and the *Fury* (377 tons), was due to his conjecture, which was in accordance with fact, that a passage might exist between Barrow Strait and Hudson Bay. Having reached North Southampton Land in Hudson Bay, he passed through Frozen Strait into Repulse Bay, and proved, by a searching examination, that the latter had no outlet northward, in other words that Melville Peninsula was continuous with the mainland. He was forced to winter near Lyon's Inlet, on the southeast coast of the peninsula, where he obtained geographical information of great value from the Esquimaux. In the following summer he entered

and named *Fury* and *Hecla* Strait, but was unable to force his way through it, and returned to England after wintering once more in Fox Channel. Again, in 1824, the same explorer sailed with the *Fury* and the *Hecla*, under orders to try for a passage through Lancaster Sound, Barrow Strait and Prince Regent's Inlet. It was an unusually bad season, and Parry only reached the inlet in time to take up winter quarters. Released in July following, he



ROALD AMUNDSEN

Mate of the ship *Belgica*, which conveyed the Belgian expedition of 1897, under the command of M. de Gerlache, to the Polar regions. Roald Amundsen made a number of important scientific and geographical discoveries.



A TYPICAL VIEW OF THE COAST



DANISH HARBOUR



THE GOVERNOR'S HOUSE



PEARY'S HOUSE AND TENT



CAPE CLEVELAND, N.-W. COAST



STONE HUTS OF THE NATIVES

GREENLAND'S ICY REGIONS: VIEWS TAKEN AT MIDNIGHT

sailed southward through waters hitherto unexplored; but the ships were much beset with ice, and the *Fury* was so damaged that she had to be abandoned, and Parry turned homeward.

Dolphin and Union Strait, and Wollaston Land to the north of it, were charted by Richardson in 1826, and twelve years later Dease and Simpson continued the discovery of this channel eastward, through Dease Strait, south of Victoria Land, to Simpson Strait, south of King William Land. In his researches with the *Victory*, from 1829 to 1833, Sir John Ross entered the Gulf of Boothia by Prince Regent's Inlet; and James Ross, his nephew, explored the James Ross Strait and the Boothia Peninsula, and discovered the North Magnetic Pole. John Rae, a doctor in the service of the Hudson Bay Company, made a close examination of the shores of the Gulf of Boothia in 1845. In the same year Franklin set out on the voyage from which neither he nor any one of his 134 companions was to return.

Sir John Franklin had seen much varied service; he had fought in the battles of Copenhagen and of Trafalgar, and in the attack on New Orleans; he had served under Buchan in the Arctic expedition of 1818; and in 1819 and again in 1825 he had led exploring expeditions in the interior and on the north coast of Canada. He had been employed, as a young naval officer, in a survey of the Australian coasts, and returned to the same region in later life as Lieutenant-Governor of Tasmania from 1834 to 1843. No more competent commander could have been entrusted with the *Erebus* (Captain Fitzjames) and the *Terror* (Captain Crozier) in the attempt to seek the north-west passage. Sailing on May 19th, 1845, his ships were seen in Baffin Bay, for the last time, two months later. From the records discovered years afterwards in a cairn at Point Victory it was learned that the two ships had passed through Lanaster Sound, Wellington Channel,

Penny Strait and Crozier Channel, and had then wintered at Beechey Island, off the south-west corner of North Devon, in Barrow Strait. Thence they had sailed through Peel Sound and Franklin Strait to King William Land, where they had been prevented from further progress by pressure of ice. Franklin having died here in June, 1847, the survivors abandoned the ships in the following summer and attempted to make their way southward by the Adelaide Peninsula to outposts of the Hudson Bay Company, but all perished. Their skeletons were afterwards found scattered along the route. Of the many expeditions which sought for the lost company and their relics, we may mention those of the *Prince Albert*, 1850, and of the *Fox*, 1857, both fitted out

by Lady Franklin; the Grinnell expedition in the *Advance*, which discovered Grinnell Land; and that of the *Assistance*, with four other ships under Sir E. Belcher, in 1852. By these and others the north shores of America, the Parry Islands, and the intricate channels of these Arctic waters were assiduously explored. Subsequently the *Polaris*, under Captain Hall, passing in 1871 through Smith Sound towards the Pole, reached 82° 16' N.; and commander A. H. Markham, of the *Nares* expedition in the *Alert* and *Discovery*, 1875, which pursued the same course, succeeded in attaining



DR. NANSEN

He was only twenty-one years of age when he visited Greenland in 1882, and had crossed the vast elevated ice-field from east to west of Greenland, in 1888, before devising his daring and original scheme for approaching the Pole.

by sledge a latitude of 83° 20' N. The north-east passage was now accomplished, in 1878 by Nordenskiöld. This explorer, who was a highly trained scientific man, had led several important expeditions to Greenland, Spitzbergen, Novaya Zemlya and the North Siberian coast before he equipped the *Vega* (300 tons), in 1877, for his successful voyage from Sweden to Japan. He proved that the north-east passage is perfectly practicable with adequate knowledge and equipment. Leaving Karlskrona on June 22nd, 1878, accompanied by three other ships bound for the North Siberian rivers, the *Vega* anchored off Cape Chelyuskin



NANSEN'S EXPEDITION TO THE NORTH POLE: THE FRAM AFTER ITS RETURN

Nansen set out on his voyage in August, 1893, reaching the New Siberia Islands in September. Here the Fram was made fast to an ice-floe, and allowed gradually to drift north, until on March 5th, 1895, a latitude of $84^{\circ} 4'$ was reached. Here he left the Fram, and pushing across the ice succeeded in advancing as far north as $86^{\circ} 13' 6''$ on April 7th, 1895.

on August 20th, and was frozen in at Kuliutchin Bay at the end of September, only 120 miles from Bering Strait. During the ten months of winter imprisonment scientific observations were carried on and overland excursions were undertaken.

The ship was free on July 18th, 1879, rounded the East Cape two days later, and on September 2nd entered Yokohama harbour. We may here mention the important discovery made in Russian Polar seas by the Austrians, Payer and Weyprecht, in 1873. This was the archipelago known as Franz Josef Land, about 200 miles north of Novaya Zemlya, and 250 miles east of Spitzbergen. Franz Josef Land was further explored by Leigh Smith in 1880. Here, also, the Jackson-Harmsworth expedition was engaged, from 1894 to 1897, in scientific investigations, and welcomed Nansen and Johansen, in June, 1896, on their return from their adventurous journey over the ice. The name of Fridtjof Nansen will always stand among those of the greatest Arctic explorers. A

naturalist by training, and curator successively of the Bergen Museum and of the Museum of Comparative Anatomy at Christiania, he had visited Greenland at the age of twenty-one, in 1882, and had crossed the vast elevated icefield from



CAPTAIN SVERDRUP

Accompanying Nansen on his Polar journey of 1893, Sverdrup commanded an Arctic expedition in 1898, succeeding in carrying his country's flag as far as $85^{\circ} 42'$

east to west of Greenland, in 1888, before he devised his daring and original scheme for approaching the Pole. This project was based largely on conclusions drawn from the disastrous experience of De Long's expedition in the Jeannette. It was in 1879 that De Long, commissioned by Mr. Gordon Bennett, sailed northward through the Bering Strait to seek the Pole. He believed in the existence of a Japanese current flowing northward through the strait, and along the east coast of Wrangel Land, which was then supposed to extend far northward; and he thought that the warm water of this current would keep an open passage that might be followed to a very high latitude. Whaling ships had always found that when caught by the ice in the neighbourhood

of Bering Strait they drifted northward. Pushing, therefore, as far north as possible, the Jeannette was ice-bound in September, 1879, in $71^{\circ} 35' N.$ and $175^{\circ} 6' E.$, south-east of Wrangel Land, and drifted for two years with the ice, until the ship was broken by the pressure, and foundered, to the north-east of the New Siberia Islands. A few men reached Yakutsk by way of these islands, though De Long and most of his companions lost their lives. But certain relics of the Jeannette continued to drift slowly, at the estimated rate of about two miles a day, with the vast movement of the ice-pack, until the ice-floe on which they were carried reached the Greenland coast, where they were discovered. Professor Mohn was the first to point out the great significance of these far-travelled fragments, and his conclusions were confirmed by a study of the driftwood which is thrown in great quantities on the Greenland shores and is much used by the Esquimaux. This timber was found to belong to Siberian species; and, further, an examination of the Greenland flora revealed numerous plants of undoubted Siberian origin. The theory of the constant current from Bering Strait and the Siberian coast, across the Pole, to the shores of Greenland and the Atlantic Ocean was strengthened by the fact that the Polar Sea is not large, and is for the most part very shallow; yet an enormous mass of water moves continually from it into the Atlantic, and this water must come, at least in part, from the Bering Strait. Nansen and his crew sailed in the Fram (402 tons) in August, 1893, rounded Cape Chelyuskin, and entering the ice at the New Siberia

Islands, was carried northward for two years. In 1895 he left the Fram in the charge of Sverdrup, and, accompanied by Johansen, made a forced march northward, attaining the latitude of $86^{\circ} 13' 6'.$



THE DUKE OF THE ABRUZZI
The Duke of the Abruzzi headed an expedition that left Christiania in June, 1899, and planted the Italian flag on a spot within 230 miles of the North Pole, thus getting nearer the goal than any of his predecessors.

After spending the winter in the north of Franz Josef Land, he joined the Jackson-Harmsworth expedition, in May, 1897, and was by them brought back to Norway, whither the Fram also returned in safety. Nansen's "farthest north" was surpassed by Captain Cagni, of the Duke of the Abruzzi's expedition, in the Polar Star. This whaling vessel left Christiania for Archangel in June, 1899, and thence proceeded to Franz Josef Land, where she wintered in Teplitz Bay, on Prince Rudolph Island. Thence an admirably organised sledge journey was undertaken to the north under great difficulties; and the latitude of $86^{\circ} 33' 49''$ was attained on April 24th, 1900. This latitude, in its turn, has been exceeded by Commander Robert E. Peary, of the United States



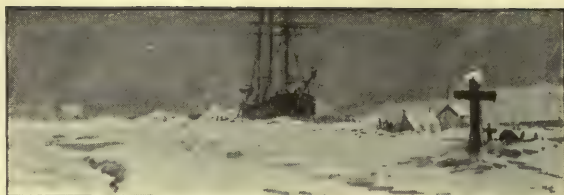
ROBERT E. PEARY

After reaching a point within 203 miles of the North Pole in 1906, Commander Peary on April 6th, 1909, reached the Pole itself.

Navy, whose admirable researches in Greenland, Ellesmere Land and Grant Land were begun in 1886. Peary is a master in sledge travel, and owes much of his success to the excellent relations which he has established with the Esquimaux. He has made a study of the Greenland ice-cap, was the first to prove that Greenland is an island, and has charted the islands to the north of it. With the support of the Peary Arctic Club he set out in 1905 with the Roosevelt, and, sailing northward to the west of Greenland, wintered at Cape Sheridan. Leaving the ship in February, he pushed northward with a party consisting of six Americans and twenty-one Esquimaux, and succeeded in reaching $87^{\circ} 6'$ on April 21st, 1906.



ANDREE'S ILL-FATED EXPEDITION: DEPARTURE OF THE BALLOON FROM SPITZBERGEN
The most conspicuous attempt to reach the North Pole by means of a balloon was that made by Salomon August Andree, a Swedish engineer, in 1897. With two companions he set out from Dane's Island on July 11th, but beyond a message received two days later by carrier pigeon nothing definite has been heard of the ill-fated enterprise. The balloon was capable of travelling from 15 to 16 miles an hour, and had a capacity of 170,000 cubic feet.



THE FINDING OF THE NORTH POLE

COMMANDER PEARY was the first man to reach the North Pole, and his successful journey was a fitting climax to the many previous voyages in the Arctic regions. In 1908 this patient and intrepid explorer sailed north in the Roosevelt and wintered at Cape Sheridan, where he arrived on September 5th. Between Capes Colan and Columbia, on the north of Grant Land, various depôts were made for the purpose of scientific investigation during the long winter months, and then, on March 1st, 1909, the expedition started from Cape Columbia. Commander Peary had with him 7 members of his party, 17 Eskimos, 133 dogs, and 19 sledges when this start was made, and the difficulties to be surmounted through open water and the breaking up of the ice were very considerable.

The expedition was divided into sections, and Captain Bartlett led the first division. Open water made all progress impossible for a week within a few days of the start. When the latitude of 86° 38' had been passed a thick layer of snow proved a serious impediment. On one occasion at night the ice began to break up, and as the camp had been fixed near open water, the grave danger of total destruction was only evaded with difficulty. As the expedition drew near the Pole the various sections were sent back, and at last in latitude 87° 48' N., at the beginning of April, Captain Bartlett, whose work had been of the highest possible value, and who was anxious to proceed, was also left behind. Accompanied by his negro servant and four Eskimos, Commander Peary reached the Pole by forced marches on April 6th. It was a great achievement of human courage and endurance. After a stay of thirty hours, and the taking of observations, the return journey was commenced.

The minimum temperature at the Pole was -33 and the maximum -12. Records were deposited for verification by future arrivals, flags were planted and photographs taken. On the march south there were fewer difficulties to face than on the outward journey. Cape Columbia was reached on April 23rd, and on July 18th the Roosevelt sailed, reaching Indian Harbour on September 6th. On his return Commander Peary was justly honoured by the geographical societies of all nations, and in 1911 he received the thanks of the United States Congress, and was promoted to the rank of Rear-Admiral. Much of his scientific work he has recorded in contributions to the journals of various learned societies, and Admiral Peary has also written a book on his famous expedition to the North Pole.

For a time Commander Peary's claim to have been the first at the North Pole was disputed by the strange story of Dr. F. A. Cook, who alleged that he had reached the Pole in April, 1908. Dr. Cook—whose family name was formerly Koch—had been surgeon to the Peary Arctic Expedition of 1891-1892, and the Belgian Antarctic Expedition of 1897-1899, and was therefore an experienced traveller in Polar regions. In 1907 he had set out for Arctic lands in a pleasure schooner, and when the vessel returned he stayed at Etah, announcing his intention of making a dash from that point for the Pole. He left Etah early in 1908, accompanied by some Eskimos and their dogs, and reached Cape Hubbard in the north of Axel Heiberg Land, where he wrote a letter announcing his hope of returning in June. According to Dr. Cook's subsequent statement, he left Cape Hubbard on March 18th, and three days later set out on "the crossing of

**Obstacles
at the
Start**

**Dr. Cook's
Strange
Story**

THE FINDING OF THE NORTH POLE

the circumpolar pack" with two Eskimos and 26 dogs. He declared that he reached a latitude of $84^{\circ} 47' N.$ on March 30th, and that on April 21st he arrived at $89^{\circ} 49' 46''$, or the Pole itself, where the temperature was -38 . Two days later he started on the return journey, proceeding to Jones Sound; thence passing the winter at Cape Sparbo, and crossing to the west of Greenland early in 1909, arriving at Upernivik on May 21st, 1909.

Dr. Cook's Claim Discredited

The absence of all scientific or other evidence, and the fact that no traces of a previous arrival were discovered by Commander Peary, led to Dr. Cook's claim being quickly discredited, while the two Eskimos who were his companions have declared that Dr. Cook was never out of sight of land at Cape Hubbard, and that he returned thence to Annootok by another route without attempting to touch the Pole.

Admiral Peary was fifty-three when he added this fine achievement of the discovery of the North Pole to his long list of Arctic explorations; and, though he has made impossible the old romantic attraction that drew so many adventurous spirits to their doom, his discovery has, if anything, heightened the scientific interest in the Arctic regions.

Mr. Karl Rasmussen's explorations in Greenland, in 1912, on an expedition sent out by the Danish Government, were remarkable, and included a very successful double crossing of that land. Starting from Markham Glacier on the east coast, with one Dane and two Eskimos, at the beginning of April, Mr. Rasmussen reached the west coast at Danmark Fiord. From that point they journeyed to "Peary Channel," where,

The Danish Expedition

as the land was no longer ice-bound and game was plentiful, they stayed a month. The return journey of 600 miles was made across the inland ice, and the east coast was once more safely reached in the middle of September, 1912.

No such happy results befell the German Arctic Expedition led by Lieutenant Schroder-Stranz. This expedition sailed in the Herzog-Ernst for a preliminary voyage, and reached Treurenberg Bay,

Spitzbergen, in August, 1912. Lieutenant Schroder-Stranz left the ship with three companions for a sledging trip, and not one of the four was ever seen again. Disaster pursued the rest of the party. The ship had to be abandoned when it became frostbound. Captain Ritschel pushed on to Advent Bay, where he arrived alone on December 27th, having left his companions, who were too exhausted to proceed, at Wijde Bay and Cape Peterman. Only two arrived—Dr. Rüdiger and Herr Rave—of those thus left behind, and they were rescued from Wijde Bay the following April. So, of that most ill-fated German Arctic expedition, only three returned to tell the tale.

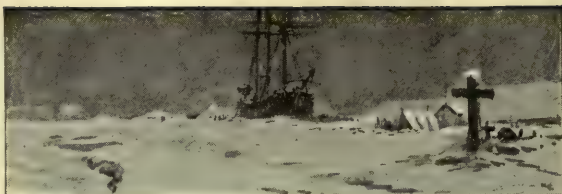
Other recent Arctic expeditions to be noted are: Mr. Stefansson's journeys for the study of the Eskimos, 1913, carried out under the auspices of the Canadian Government; Mr. D. B. Macmillan's Crocker Land Expedition; Dr. Koch's explorations in Greenland (1912), attended

The German Arctic Expedition

with much hardship, especially in the traversing of Queen Louise Land; the French expedition, led by M. Jules de Payer (1913), for the scientific investigation of the North-Eastern part of Franz Josef Land; the Russian expedition under Commander Militsky (1911-1914), which, in its explorations to the north of Siberia, has discovered a large area of land—now named Nicholas II. Land—beyond latitude $81^{\circ} N.$ and longitude $102^{\circ} E.$

Thus, while we acclaim Admiral Peary, and rightly, as the discoverer of the North Pole, and give him the due honour as the conqueror where many have failed, it is well to remember that others are still ready to encounter hardship and danger, and the possible loss of life, in the quest of scientific learning; that men of all the northern countries of Europe still venture boldly in these Arctic regions to reveal what secrets the ice-bound lands may contain, and to add thus their contributions to the sum total of our human knowledge. That these contributions are in nearly every case of immense importance and of lasting value may readily be conceded.

J. C.



THE LURE OF THE SOUTH POLE HEROIC STRUGGLES WITH THE ANTARCTIC ICE

THE history of Antarctic exploration is comparatively modern, and may be said to begin with the voyages of the illustrious James Cook in 1768 and 1772. Before his time the myth of a great Austral continent had been handed on from one generation of map-makers to another, on the ground, apparently, that a vast continental mass was necessary in the southern hemisphere as an equipoise to the continents north of the Equator.

The Terra Australis was therefore charted right round the world, its northern limits coming up to the Strait of Magellan, in South America, and approaching near the Cape of Good Hope and the Malay Archipelago; and though expeditions, such as that of Bouvet in 1739, pushed its coast-line farther south, they tended rather to confirm than to dissipate this fallacious conjecture. Cook's voyage in the Endeavour, in 1768, did much to

The Famous Voyages of Captain Cook

shake the inveterate error. His ship had been sent with an astronomical party to Tahiti to observe the transit of Venus; and on his way back Cook circumnavigated New Zealand, surveyed the east coast of Australia and claimed it for Britain, and passing through Torres Strait established the insularity of New Guinea.

He had thus done much to disprove the existence of the supposed great continent, and his next voyage was to dispose of the matter finally. Sailing in 1772 with the Resolution and the Adventure, he took a southerly course from the Cape of Good Hope, was the first to cross the Antarctic Circle, and pushed on until he was stopped by ice. Proceeding eastward, he now circumnavigated the world in high latitudes, breaking his Antarctic voyage by retreats to the north, during which he made important surveys.

"The importance of this voyage," says Captain R. F. Scott, of the Discovery, "can scarcely be exaggerated; once and for all the idea of a populous fertile

southern continent was proved to be a myth, and it was clearly shown that whatever land might exist to the south it must be a region of desolation, hidden beneath a mantle of ice and snow. The vast extent of the tempestuous southern seas was revealed, and the limits of the habitable globe were made known." Cook

himself described the regions of the south as "countries condemned to everlasting rigidity by Nature, never to yield

to the warmth of the sun, for whose wild and desolate aspect I find no words." Cook's feat was repeated in 1819 by the Russian Bellingshausen, who crossed the Antarctic Circle six times during his circumnavigation, and discovered and named Peter I. Island and Alexander I. Land.

About this time, also, the large but short-lived whaling and sealing industries in these waters were responsible for important discoveries, which are associated chiefly with the names of Weddell, Biscoe, and Balleny. Weddell's "farthest south" (74° 15') was achieved in 1823 in an open sea which has been called by his name; Biscoe, in 1831, discovered Enderby Land and Graham Land; and Balleny, in 1839, reported the Balleny Islands and Sabrina Land.

A French expedition, sailing in 1837, under Dumont d'Urville, added Joinville Land and Louis Philippe Land to the map in 1838, and two years later Adélie Land and the Côte Clarie also; Commodore

Wilkes, of the American Navy, sailing in 1837 with five ships, discovered Wilkes Land; and these expeditions were immediately followed by an important British enterprise in the interests of magnetic science. Captain James Ross, who was appointed to this government expedition, sailed from Hobart in November, 1840, with the Erebus (370 tons), and the Terror (340 tons). Crossing the Antarctic Circle at 171° E., he came upon a great expanse

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ANTARCTIC NAVIGATORS ICEBOUND · HUNTING FOR SEALS



THE ASTROLABE AND THE ZELEE SURROUNDED BY ICEBERGS



THE EXPLORERS AMID THE TERRORS OF THE ANTARCTIC

ADMIRAL D'URVILLE'S FRENCH EXPEDITION TO THE ANTARCTIC IN 1837



THE GAUSS IN ITS WINTER QUARTERS OFF WILHELM II. LAND



CAMPING-OUT IN THE ANTARCTIC REGIONS



MEMBERS OF THE PARTY ON A SLEDGE JOURNEY

VON DRYGALSKI'S GERMAN EXPEDITION TO THE ANTARCTIC IN 1903

THE LURE OF THE SOUTH POLE

of broken ice; and ploughing southward through it for five days, he broke into an open sea that was to be thereafter known by his name. Steering westward, he discovered and followed the long coast of Victoria Land, from Cape North to Cape Crozier, and then followed the great ice barrier into which it passed. In this voyage, which did more for Antarctic discovery than any which preceded or has followed it, Ross reached a latitude of $78^{\circ} 11'$, discovered and named the volcanoes Erebus and Terror, and determined the position of the South Magnetic Pole. Little was now done in these regions until the close of the century, when a general revival of interest led to several well-equipped expeditions which have achieved very considerable results. Thus, the Norwegian Antarctica entered Ross Sea in 1894, and effected the first landing in Victoria Land. Mr. C. F. Borchgrevink, commissioned by Sir George Newnes, sailed in the Southern Cross for the same region in 1898, and wintered at Cape Adare. The Belgica, under Captain de Gerlache, coasted in 1898 along Graham Land and Alexander Land, and becoming ice-bound in Bellingshausen Sea, drifted in the ice throughout the winter. A German expedition in the Gauss, under Professor Von Drygalski, discovered in 1902 Kaiser Wilhelm II. Land, off which the Gauss wintered, returning home in the following year.

The Swedish vessel Antarctica made a close survey of the west coast of Danco Land and Graham Land in 1902 and 1903, and at the same time the Scotia,

under W. S. Bruce, made an oceanographical study of the Weddell Sea, and discovered and named Coats' Land. A vast accretion to scientific knowledge of Polar conditions has resulted from these expeditions. Simultaneously with these, a British expedition was sent out to the Ross Sea in the Discovery (485 tons), under Captain Robert F. Scott, R.N. The undertaking was promoted jointly by the Royal Society and the Royal Geographical Society, and was partially subsidised by the British Government. The vessel, a wooden auxiliary steamship, was specially

built for this work, and was manned by a naval crew. Leaving England in August, and New Zealand in December, 1901, the Discovery worked up the coast of Victoria Land from Cape Adare to

McMurdo Sound, making close observations of the mountains along the coast. Thence they sailed eastward along the great ice barrier, which was found to vary from 30 feet to 280 feet in height. It was observed that the edge of the barrier was considerably to the south of Ross's determination of it, and that this enormous field of ice rises and falls with the tide, and is therefore floating for an undetermined distance southward. By following



DR. OTTO NORDENSKIÖLD

Nephew of Baron Nordenskiöld, the famous Arctic explorer, he led a Swedish expedition to the Antarctic in 1901; two years later his ship was crushed in the ice, and with his party he was rescued by an Argentine gunboat.



THE REGION EXPLORED BY THE DISCOVERY



THE DISCOVERY AS IT APPEARED WHEN FOUND BY THE RELIEF SHIPS



OFFICERS OF THE TERRA NOVA RETURNING FROM A SEAL HUNT



THE RELIEF SHIP, MORNING: SOLID ICE TO LEFT AND BROKEN PACK ICE TO RIGHT

AMID THE SOUTHERN SNOWS: SCENES IN THE DISCOVERY RELIEF EXPEDITION



LETTERS FROM HOME: "POSTMEN" ON THE ANTARCTIC ICE

Captain Scott's expedition to the Antarctic left England in August, 1901, and New Zealand the following December, and the party had suffered extreme hardships before welcome relief was brought them in January, 1904, by the *Morning* and *Terra Nova*, two government ships. The above picture shows four stalwart members of the *Morning* on ski, conveying the *Discovery*'s well-filled letter-bag from the *Terra Nova* to be loaded on dog sledges.

the edge of the barrier, the *Discovery* arrived at King Edward VII.'s Land, a region of peaks and glaciers hitherto unknown, and then, returning westward, Captain Scott established the fact that Mounts Erebus and Terror constitute an island, which was named Ross Island. The ship was put into winter quarters at Cape Armitage there. On November

2nd, 1902, Captain Scott, accompanied by Messrs. Wilson and Shackleton, started on his southward sledge party over the ice. Amid great difficulties, due chiefly to the deterioration of the food which they carried for the dogs, and also to the insufficiency of their own food supply, they travelled to a latitude of $82^{\circ} 16' 33''$, which was reached on December 30th.



STUDYING THE HIDDEN LIFE OF THE ANTARCTIC DEEP

How the explorers with Captain Scott's expedition employed the scientific drag-net, which was frequently lowered through a hole cut in the ice, in their examination of the life of the Antarctic Ocean, is illustrated in the above picture. While engaged in this operation the men sheltered themselves behind a semi-circular wall of snow.



JAMES WEDDEL



LT. A. DE GERLACHE



C. BORCHGREVINK



W. S. BRUGE



CAPTAIN SCOTT



LIEUTENANT SHACKLETON



ADML. D'URVILLE



LT. WILKES, U.S.N.



BENJAMIN MORRELL



ADML. BELLINGSHAUSEN

THE QUEST OF THE SOUTH POLE: INTREPID EXPLORERS OF THE ANTARCTIC

Photos by Thomson, S. J. Beckett and Alston Rivers



The history of Antarctic exploration is comparatively modern, beginning with Captain Cook's memorable voyage in the Endeavour in 1768, and subsequently with the Resolution and the Adventure in 1772, on which 'later occasion the famous explorer succeeded in crossing the Antarctic Circle. With the exception of Captain Ross's voyage in 1840, little of importance was done in these regions until the close of the nineteenth century, when several well-equipped expeditions were sent out by various governments and geographical societies. On January 9th, 1909, Lieutenant Shackleton came within 111 miles of the Pole, and on December 14th, 1911, Captain Amundsen reached the Pole itself, Captain Scott arriving there a month later, January 18th, 1912.

reached the Pole itself, Captain Scott arriving there a month later, January 18th, 1912.

The route lay along the ice to the east of the coast of Victoria Land, on which the mountains Longstaff, Markham and many others were named. The little party returned to the ship, extremely worn, on February 3rd, 1903. In the following summer Captain Scott travelled westward with two companions over a high, desolate plateau, the summit of Victoria Land, to $146^{\circ} 33' \text{ E.}$, covering in eighty-one days 1,098 miles.

These daring ice journeys were emulated in a later South Polar expedition, by Lieut. Ernest H. Shackleton, who has succeeded in reaching $88^{\circ} 23' \text{ S.}$, 162° E. , a point within 111 statute miles of the Pole. This explorer, who had accompanied Captain Scott in his southward

Nimrod on March 4th. A second party, the Northern, succeeded, amid great difficulties and dangers in locating the Magnetic Pole in $72^{\circ} 25' \text{ S.}$, 154° E. ; and the Westward, or third, party explored and mapped the coast.

Among the most important results of this expedition were the complete reversal of the old theory of a region of Polar calm; the discovery that the South Polar region is an elevated plateau; the discovery of coal measures in the Antarctic continent; the surveying of a considerable range of coast-line to the west of Victoria Land; and the ascent of Mount Erebus, the height of which has been determined at 13,120 feet. It was apparent that the North and the



THE HARDSHIPS OF ANTARCTIC EXPLORATION: AN EPISODE IN SHACKLETON'S EXPEDITION
Lieutenant Shackleton's Antarctic expedition of 1907-9 was marked by many hardships, not the least of them being a shortage of food, which made it necessary for the explorers to kill the small, hardy ponies which accompanied them one after the other, until at last the original number had been reduced to three, as shown in the above picture.

journey to a point within 450 miles of the Pole in December, 1902, fitted out the *Nimrod*, a whaling vessel of 227 tons, in 1907, and proceeded to the Ross Sea. The leader with three companions, who constituted the "Southern party," leaving the coast on October 29th, 1908, pressed southward as rapidly as possible over a mountainous plateau at an elevation of 10,000 feet. Glaciers intersected by frequent crevasses, treacherous snow-drifts, fearful blizzards, and temperatures of from 40 to 90 degrees of frost, made the journey incomparably arduous. After ten weeks of continuous travelling, they reached their farthest south on January 9th, 1909, and, returning, joined the

South Poles would soon be reached before many years had passed. The impression left on one's mind by a review of the history of Polar exploration is that the scientific study of these regions is still only in its beginnings, and that the remarkable interest in Arctic and Antarctic research which has characterised the early years of the twentieth century can only increase with every fresh accession of knowledge. It is greatly to be desired, and can hardly be doubted, that British explorers will continue in the future, as they have done in the past, to play a pre-eminent part in this high enterprise.

GEORGE SANDEMAN



FIGHTING ITS WAY TOWARDS THE POLE: THE NIMROD IN A HEAVY STORM



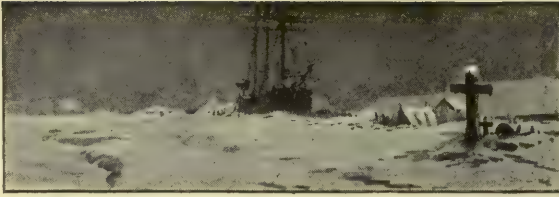
Weekly Press, N.Z.

ARRIVAL OF THE EXPEDITION AT NEW ZEALAND: THE NIMROD NEARING LYTTELTON

NEARING THE SOUTH POLE: THE SHACKLETON EXPEDITION

The copyright of the top picture is reserved by Lieutenant Shackleton

AMUNDSEN
FIRST AT
THE POLE



IV.
THE
SOUTH
POLE

THE DISCOVERY OF THE SOUTH POLE

THE brilliant achievements of Lieutenant Shackleton in the Antarctic regions were followed within a few years by the actual arrival at the South Pole of Captain Amundsen and Captain Scott. It was in 1910 that Captain Robert Falcon Scott, who had been engaged for some time at the British Admiralty as Naval Assistant since his return from Antarctic exploration in 1906, set out in the "Terra Nova" for the South Pole. He reached the edge of the Great Ice Barrier in September, and his party was subsequently divided into various sections, Lieutenant Campbell commanding the northern section. Not till November 2nd, 1911, did Captain Scott and his contingent leave their last base—Hut Point—for the Pole. They duly crossed the Beardmore Glacier, a tough undertaking, and on December 21st were on the plateau 8500 feet above the sea level. At this point the dogs were sent back, and Captain Scott and his comrades dragged their own sledges all the rest of the way. On January 4th, 1912, the last supporting party left Captain Scott, with four companions, at 87° 35' S.—just 150 miles from the Pole. At that time Captain Scott and all his company were in excellent health and spirits.

Meanwhile, Captain Roald Amundsen had already reached the Pole—an event entirely unknown to Captain Scott—and was then speeding away north to spread the news. Captain Amundsen, who was born in Norway, in 1872, had from the age of twenty-five been concerned in expeditions, Arctic and Antarctic, and he had planned to make a dash for the North Pole when the news came of Commander Peary's successful journey. Forestalled by Peary in the north, Amundsen then decided to turn his attention to the South Pole, and to outrun, if possible, Captain Scott, who had already left England on what

was to be his last journey. Captain Amundsen accomplished his purpose with complete success. He landed at Whale Bight, 400 miles east of Scott's quarters, and on October 20th, 1911, with four companions, made his "dash" for the Pole. But for occasional fog and blizzards, the journey was accomplished in exceptionally good weather; 25 kilometres were covered on the average every day, and the Pole was reached on December 14th, 1911. After naming the plateau of the Pole after King Haakon VII. of Norway, and taking observations, Captain Amundsen left tents and records as evidence of his discovery for the next arrival, and on December 17th started on his homeward journey. Again the atmospheric conditions were as entirely favourable as they had been on the journey to the Pole, and when Captain Amundsen and his band reached Hobart Town, Tasmania, on March 8th, 1912, all the civilised world was quickly informed by telegraph that at length the South Pole had been discovered, and that the honour of its discovery had fallen to the Norwegian voyager, Captain Roald Amundsen.

Captain Scott had learnt the news nearly two months earlier, and, while the world was congratulating Captain Amundsen, the English explorer was already at close quarters with death. On January 18th, 1912, a fortnight after bidding good-bye to the rest of his detachment, Captain Scott, with Captain Oates, Dr. E. A. Wilson, Lieutenant H. R. Bowers, and Seaman Evans, reached the South Pole. There, at 89° 59½' S., they found Captain Amundsen's tent and records, and knew to their disappointment that they had been outpaced. Scott planted the Union Jack, which he had received from Queen Alexandra, half a mile

**Amundsen
First at
the Pole**

**Scott's
Advance
to the Pole**

**Captain
Scott's
Arrival**

beyond Amundsen's point, and then on the following day this stalwart band of five started on their return journey, the last journey they were to make in this mortal world. For a time all went well and good progress was made; then the weather became as bad for Scott as it had been good for Amundsen. Terrible

The Tragedy of the Return

blizzards beset the travellers, and so hindered the march that it became necessary to eat into the reserve of provisions. It is from Captain Scott's own diaries we know the details of the bitter journey, and the story of how five brave men went to their deaths on that homeward journey from the South Pole. With provisions failing, and buffeted by blizzards, weariness and exhaustion diminished the daily rate of progress still more. Then sickness fell upon Seaman Evans, who was counted "the strong man of the party," and this involved a further strain upon the rest. Descending the Beardmore Glacier, Evans fell and died of concussion of the brain on the 17th of February. A month later and Scott lost the second member of his little company. For on March 17th Captain Oates, badly frostbitten, and believing himself to be a hindrance to his comrades, hoped by his own death to make it possible for them to reach the depôt alive, and so he walked out of the tent while the blizzard was raging, and was seen no more.

Yet for another five days did Captain Scott, Dr. Wilson—the chief of the scientific staff—and Lieutenant Bowers struggle on; and then they pitched their tent for the last time—only eleven miles away from One Ton Depôt. Provisions for two days remained, but the blizzard, which still raged and showed no signs of dropping, made for men, now famished and utterly exhausted, all hope of continuing the journey impossible. There was nothing left

The End of the Journey

for the three men but to wait for death, though they were but eleven miles from where supplies and safety awaited them. The journey ended where it did in the great solitudes, while the snowstorms beat around the tent. Provisions were gone, hope was extinct, death alone remained. In those last hours Captain Scott wrote the story of the tragic ending to the brave adventure. The disaster could not be in any way due "to any faulty

organisation," he wrote. It was the totally unexpected savagery of the weather that had made shipwreck of all plans. "Our wreck is certainly due to this sudden advent of severe weather," and in especial to "the long gale in 83° S.," were amongst the last words in the diary. "Not a single completely fine day" had been experienced on the return journey, Captain Scott noted. The last entry in the diary was made on March 25th, 1912, and then the worn-out travellers found the mercy of death. Besides explaining how the exceptional ferocity of the blizzards had brought ruin on the expedition, Captain Scott testified in his farewell message that the three men dying in that tent were facing death calmly, and without complaining, as brave souls have ever faced it. "For my own sake I do not regret this journey," he could write, "which has shown that Englishmen can endure hardship, help one another, and meet death with as great a fortitude as ever in the past. . . . We have no cause for complaint, but bow to the will of Providence, determined still to do our best to the last."

Then came a final appeal to A Hero's Farewell England—an appeal not made in vain—to see that those who had been dependent on the men dead and dying in that Antarctic land should not suffer. "These rough notes and our dead bodies must tell the tale; but surely, surely a great rich country like ours will see that those who are dependent upon us are properly provided for." It is not too much to say that in all the annals of polar exploration, the story of how Robert Falcon Scott and his heroic comrades reached the Pole, and then perished almost within sight of safety, is hardly surpassed for tragedy and pathos. Not till November 12th, 1912, did the search party arrive at Captain Scott's tent to find the three dead bodies, and the diaries and scientific records.

Another search party arrived about the same time at Cape Evans, and found there those members of Captain Scott's expedition who had not been allotted to the fatal journey to the Pole, but, under Lieutenant Campbell's leadership, had remained to explore the country north of the base camp. They, too, had had their powers of endurance tested to the uttermost, but, fortunately, without loss of life. Lieutenant Campbell had landed with his party at Terra Nova Bay on January 8th, 1912,

on the understanding that scientific work should be carried out for not more than a summer month, and the supply of provisions taken was only sufficient for a month. Unfortunately, the vessel that should have called for them at the end of that time was unable to reach them, with the result that the explorers were compelled to spend the winter at Terra Nova Bay—living chiefly on seal meat and blubber. Not before the end of September was it possible to move from winter quarters, and only with much hardship did Lieutenant Campbell and his band arrive at Cape Evans early in November. Although a great deal of important and valuable scientific work was accomplished by the British Antarctic Expedition of 1911-12, including the ascent of Mount Erebus, the tragedy of

Lieut. Campbell's Hard Winter

Captain Scott's journey to the South Pole remains the most memorable feature of that expedition.

The Australian Antarctic Expedition of 1912-13 is also notable in the chronicle of recent explorations at the South Pole. Led by Dr. Mawson, and suffering heavy losses, it contributed seriously to scientific knowledge. This expedition was in two detachments, one commanded by Dr. Mawson himself, the other by Mr. Frank Wild. Dr. Mawson had two companions, Lieutenant Ninnis and Dr. Merz. The former perished on December 4th, 1912, falling into a deep crevasse, and carrying with him a dog-sledge which contained nearly all the provisions of the party. The two survivors pushed on with six starving dogs, which were all eventually killed for food. Dr. Merz succumbed through exhaustion on January 17th, and Dr. Mawson reached his base alone on February 8th, 1913—just a few hours after the Aurora had sailed to take up Mr. Wild's contingent, which had been left on the Shackleton Glacier. These were safely rescued by Captain Davis with the Aurora on February 23rd, and sailed for Australia. This western party, under Mr. Frank Wild, had explored the coast for some 350 miles between 101° 31' E. and Kaiser Wilhelm Land, and had named

this area Queen Mary Land. The main results of Dr. Mawson's Australian expedition were the discovery of Adélie Land—an enormous ice-covered plateau rising to 7000 feet—the survey of coast line by Mr. Wild, a number of extremely important scientific observations in the region of the South Pole, and some valuable geological

discoveries. Dr. Mawson, with six members of the expedition who had been left at the base when the Aurora sailed, remained to spend the following winter—i.e., March to September, 1913, in the Antarctic area, waiting for the summer before rescue could reach them.

Yet another Antarctic exploration party of recent years, the German Antarctic Expedition, of 1911-1912, claims notice. This expedition, under Lieutenant Filchner, left South Georgia in the Deutschland, December 11th, 1911, and penetrated the Weddell Sea to latitude 78° S., longitude 35° W., a point 250 miles in advance of all previous records in that direction. On January 30th, 1912, at 76° 40' S. the vessel sighted an inland ice-cap rising precipitously 650 to 1000 feet out of the sea. The edge of this was followed southward, and near 78° S. a small bay was discovered, which was named Vahsel Bay, after the captain of the Deutschland. Attempts were made to effect a landing without any success, and after various adventures and discoveries Lieutenant Filchner returned to Buenos Aires in January, 1913. He reported that the so-called South Greenland was non-existent, and that

German Antarctic Exploration

his discovered land in the Weddell Sea—henceforth to be called Luitpold Land—was a continuation of Coats Land. So, despite death and the unspeakable hardships of cold and hunger in the solitudes of the ice-bound territories of the South Pole, the Antarctic regions still draw men to seek out and number the seas and coasts, the glaciers and plateaux, and to divide the earth from the waters in that vast area of desolation.

J. C.

The United States

BY

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Author of "From the Cotton Field to the Cotton Mill,"

"The Prisons of the Civil War,"

"Our Land," etc.



THE AGE OF DISCOVERY AND EXPLORATION

EUROPE SETS OUT TO LEARN MORE OF THE LANDS ACROSS THE SEAS

THOUGH Columbus made four voyages across the Atlantic, he did not see the continent which we now call North America, nor did he realise that he had found a new world. On his third voyage (1498), he reached South America, and on his fourth and last (1502), sailed for a considerable distance along the coast of Central America; but the great continent to the north had already been reached by a navigator bearing the flag of England, and this discovery was the chief basis for the English territorial claims, later made good by exploration and settlement.

But this discovery of John Cabot, of which we shall say more presently, was really a re-discovery. There can be no doubt that a part of the great continent had been touched five hundred years before Cabot, though the effort at colonisation was futile, and even the knowledge of the existence of the land had been forgotten. In 983, hardy seamen from Iceland, under Eric the Red, had begun to explore Greenland, and the ruins of their settlement may be seen to this day. Hearing vague rumours of land to the westward, Leif, the son of Eric the Red, usually known as Leif Erićsson, sailed in the year 1000, on a voyage of discovery, accompanied by about thirty-five companions,

They came upon a land of flat stones, probably the coast of Labrador, which they called "Helluland," that is "flat-

stone land," and further south saw a wooded shore which they called "Markland." Still

further south—possibly on Massachusetts Bay—they landed upon a pleasant shore, which from the abundance of wild grapes they called "Vinland." Here they spent the winter, and the next spring took back a cargo of timber to Greenland. Other voyages were made by Leif's brother, who was killed by an Indian arrow, and in 1007 Thorfinn Karlsefni, with 160 men and several women, attempted to form a permanent settlement on Vinland. Here his son Snorro was born, but after three years the hostility of the natives drove them home. From Snorro many distinguished Scandinavians have claimed descent. After 1012 we have no accounts of further voyages, and gradually Vinland was forgotten, though the story was written in the sagas.

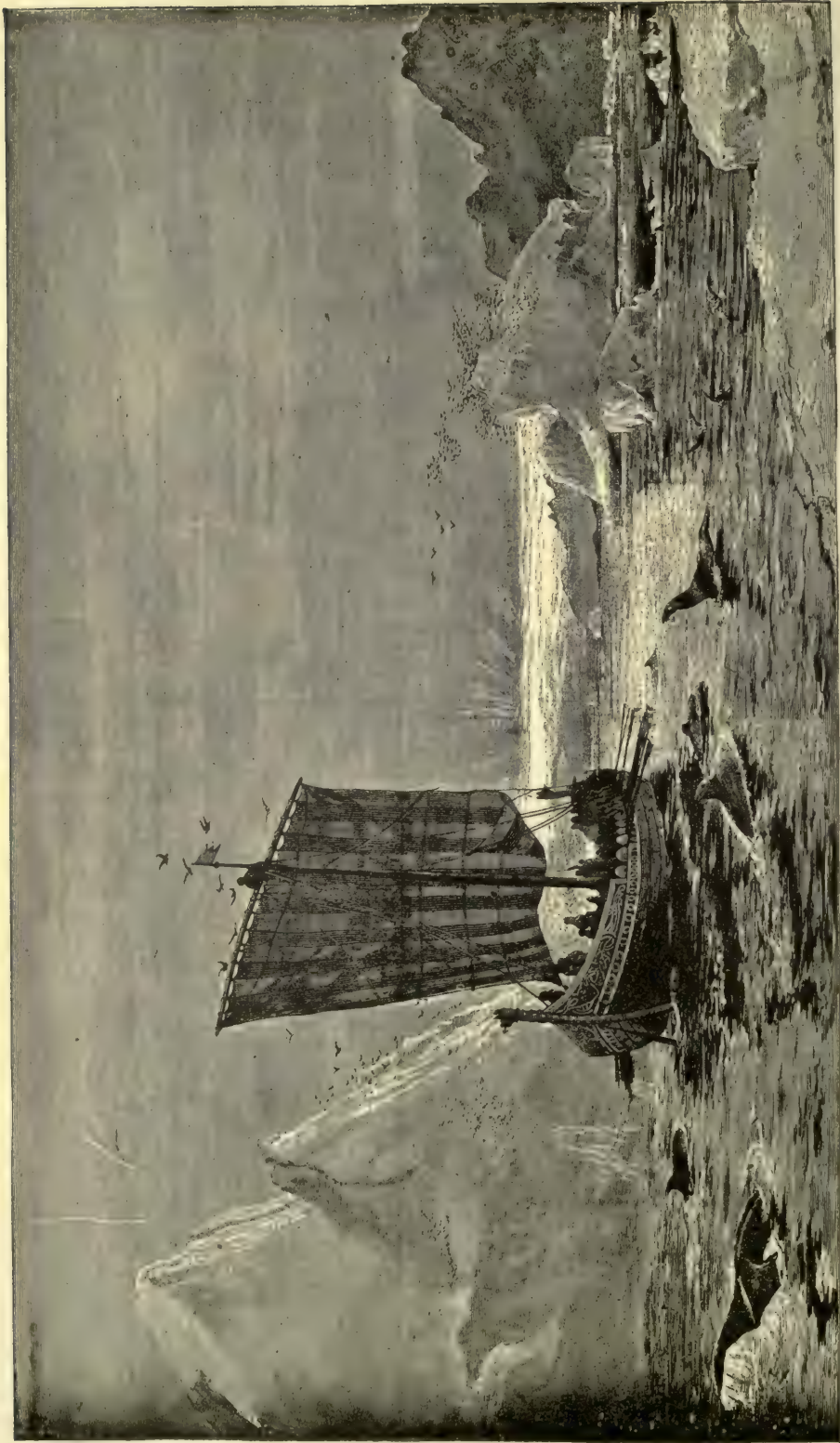
Now let us return to the voyage of John Cabot, or Giovanni Cabota, already mentioned. He was, like Columbus, a Genoese by birth, and after living in Venice, Spain and Portugal, came to settle in England about 1490. In 1497, with a charter from Henry VII,

Columbus did not reach North America

The discoveries of the Northmen

Voyages of the Norse Explorers

The first English Explorations



THE FIRST DISCOVERY OF GREENLAND. THE FAMOUS VOYAGE OF KING ERIC THE RED IN 983

Although sighted by Gunnbjörn as far back as 879, Greenland was not visited by Europeans until a century later, when the Icelandic King, Eric the Red, and a small company of followers landed on its shores and established a colony, naming it Grönland. Davis re-discovered the country in 1585-87; but Norse settlers had disappeared, leaving only a few ruins of their towns. The Danes obtained a footing on its west coast in 1721, and a new colony was again founded, which continued to increase and thrive. The above picture shows the sailor-king, Eric the Red, sighting land after many days of weary voyaging. Much of the country remains unknown. From the painting by Carl Rasmussen.

DISCOVERY AND EXPLORATION

he sailed from Bristol and reached the shores of North America, either Labrador or Newfoundland. After coasting some distance along the shores, he returned to England. For his success in discovering the "new ile," the thrifty king was moved to make him a gift of £10. The next year, with his son Sebastian, and a larger expedition, he sailed for some distance along the coast, just how far we do not know. John Cabot now drops out of sight and it is possible that he died on the voyage. There seemed to be more outlay than profit in these explorations, and the fever for discovery had not yet reached England. Sebastian removed to Spain and became Pilot Major under the Emperor Charles V, but long after, in 1548, returned to England, and became the head of a company organised to seek the northern passage to China. After the death of Henry VII, his successor Henry VIII, sent an expedition of which we know little, but soon became engrossed with his struggle with the Pope, and we have no further English exploration for a time.

In 1497 Portugal, not to be outdone by Spain, continuing explorations along the African coast, sent Vasco da Gama who rounded the Cape of Good Hope and reached India by way of the east. It was thought also that some of these new lands to the north might lie to the east of the Papal Line of Demarcation, which, as has been mentioned, lay 370 leagues west of the Azores. So in 1500, or 1501, Gaspar Cortereal sailed to the northern seas. Though one of his ships returned he did not. The next year, 1502, his brother Miguel went in search of him, only to be lost himself, but some of his companions returned. The country explored was much the same as that touched by the Cabots, and on these voyages Portugal based a claim to territory, but no permanent settlements were made; though from this time forward, until their country was annexed by Spain in 1580, the Portuguese came frequently to the Grand Banks for fish, and fishing stations were established.

The news of the good fishing in this region became common property in Eu-

rope, and Breton and Norman sailors frequented it after 1504, but made little attempt to explore the inhospitable land. In 1524, however, a Florentine, Giovanni da Verrazano, sailing under the French flag, crossed the Atlantic and reached the coast, apparently on the coast of what is now North Carolina. He skirted the coast northward as far as Newfoundland. It seems probable that he entered New York harbour, though this is not certain. He too drops out of sight after this last voyage.

Ten years later (1534-35), Jacques Cartier, a sea captain of St. Malo, made two voyages to the St. Lawrence, and on the second penetrated as far as the present city of Montreal. Here he found an Indian village called Hochelaga, and to the great hill behind it, Cartier gave its present name, Mont Royal. Returning to the Indian village of Stadacona, the present Quebec, the party passed a miserable winter, but reached France in 1536. Francis I decided that his kingdom should rival Spain and Portugal in its possessions. Sieur de

The First French Settlement Fails Roberval was created Viceroy of Canada, with Cartier as Captain-General, and in 1541 the latter set out on a voyage of exploration, leaving Roberval to follow with the colonists. We know little of the events which followed, except that Roberval was delayed, that Cartier returned to France, but in 1543 again came to Canada to take home the wretched remnant of the colony which had been settled at Cap Rouge near Quebec. Here French attempts to settle Canada end for a time. The account of the later, and successful planting, will be found in the History of Canada.

Now let us return to the Spanish explorers after Columbus. Several explorers sought to find more of Asia, to which they thought they had come. Among them was Vincente Yañez Pinzon, who made several voyages. In one (1599), he reached the coast of South America, south of the Equator and then sailed north two thousand miles, crossing the mouth of the Amazon, and finally reaching Hispaniola. Diego de Lepe covered much of the same region, the same year,

and Hojeda also added something to geographical knowledge.

An interesting personality sailed on some of these voyages. This was a Florentine, Amerigo Vespucci, better

The Name "America" Appears on the Maps known as Americus Vesputius, whose account of four voyages he claimed to

have made, became immensely popular. His story showed that the continent of South America did not correspond to any land heretofore described,—it was thought that Columbus, Cabot and the others had reached Asia—and that it must be a new world. So Martin Waldseemüller, professor in the little college at St. Dié, in Lorraine, suggested that this "Fourth Part" of the world—Europe, Asia and Africa were the others—should be called Amerige, that is Americ's land, in his honour. The name, thus first applied to Brazil, was afterwards extended to cover the western hemisphere when the proper relations of the northern to the southern continent were realised. This, however, did not come until after the voyage of Ferdinand Magellan (1519-22), who rounded South America, but died before one of his ships returned to Spain after circumnavigating the globe. Six years before (1513), Vasco Nuñez de Balboa, from a "peak in Darien" had seen the Pacific Ocean.

Juan Ponce de Leon had come over with Columbus on his second voyage in 1493, and was for years occupied as

The Fruitless Search for the Fountain of Youth soldier or administrator in the West Indies. The Indians told the

credulous Spaniards of a wonderful island, Bimini, full of gold and containing a wonderful fountain of youth. Ponce de Leon set out in three caravels to find this island and reached the mainland, either in 1512 or 1513. As the day was Easter Sunday, "Pascua Florida," he called the land Florida. He landed near the later site of St. Augustine, but finding neither gold nor fountain, coasted along the shore to the extremity of the peninsula, and for some distance up the other side.

In 1521, he determined to conquer and settle the land, and led a colony of six hundred to the western coast. The In-

dians fought furiously and the captain received a wound in the thigh. For this reason he returned to Cuba, and after much suffering died without finding his magic fountain, and it is not certain that he ever knew that Florida was not an island. The accounts of these early explorations are often confused, and both their chronology and their geography are difficult to reconcile. Few explorers carried competent map-makers with them, and the true contour and extent of the lands on the western hemisphere were learned very slowly.

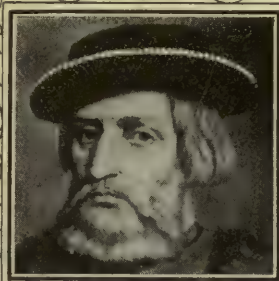
By this time it was suspected that a body of land lay between Europe and Asia, but Balboa had seen that it was

America Thought to be Very Narrow narrow in Central America. How wide it was to the north had yet to be discovered, and

for a hundred years longer men vainly sought a passage to India through the continent. One of these was Lucas Vasquez d'Ayllon, who, in 1525, explored the James River and Chesapeake Bay, and the next year attempted to found a town on the James near the spot where the English succeeded long afterward. Another Spaniard, Panfilo de Narvaez, who had previously been sent to arrest Cortes in Mexico, set out, in 1528, to explore the region north of the Gulf of Mexico. Landing on the western shores of Florida, about Tampa Bay, he made an excursion westward into the interior, and was unable to find his ships when he returned to the shore. Hoping that the missing ships, which had however returned to Tampa, would be found, the party marched along the shore for two months. Building five

Cabeza de Vaca and His Strange Story frail boats, they embarked and after several weeks came to the mouth

of a great river, the Mississippi. Some of the boats were lost and Narvaez himself was drowned before landing in Texas where most of the party were killed by the Indians. Finally, four survivors, one of whom was Cabeza de Vaca, in 1536, after wandering far and wide, reached a Spanish settlement in Mexico. The conquest of Mexico by Cortes and the subsequent settlement has already been told under Mexico and need not be repeated here.



CORTEZ



BALBOA



DE SOTO



DRAKE



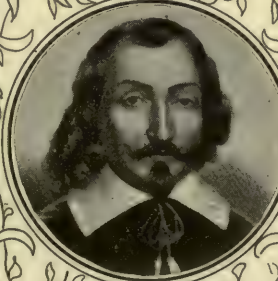
RALEIGH



HUDSON



CARTIER



CHAMPLAIN



LA SALLE

FAMOUS EXPLORERS OF AMERICA

Three of these explorers were Spanish, three were English and three were French. Cortez conquered Mexico, Balboa discovered the Pacific Ocean, and De Soto reached the Mississippi River. Sir Francis Drake and Sir Walter Raleigh were great favourites of Queen Elizabeth, and helped to create interest in colonisation in England. Henry Hudson, though an Englishman, was in the Dutch service when he sailed into the Hudson River. Cartier, Champlain and La Salle helped to plant the flag of France in the New World.

HISTORY OF THE WORLD

The story of Cabeza de Vaca showed the immensity of the new land, and several expeditions went out to explore. The legend of seven great cities of Cibola somewhere in the north became current in Mexico and, in 1540, Francisco de Coronado, with eleven hundred men, started to find them. He found the Indian pueblos, which were probably the origin of the legend, but got no treasure and pushed on northward, perhaps into the present state of Kansas. A smaller expedition discovered the Grand Cañon of the Colorado. It is probable that he and Hernando de Soto, to be mentioned later, were at one time only a few hundred miles apart. Coronado was a good soldier, and his expedition, which returned to Mexico in 1542, had lost few men, even if it did not find gold or turquoises.

Another expedition, growing out of the story of Cabeza de Vaca, was that of Hernando de Soto, a soldier of fortune who had accompanied

De Soto Finds the Mighty Mississippi

Pizarro to Peru. In 1537 he had been appointed governor of Cuba and had been empowered to occupy the country formerly granted to Narvaez. Setting out from Havana in 1539, with 600 men, he landed in Tampa Bay and marched northward, perhaps into western North Carolina. He then marched southward again into Alabama, seeking in vain treasure cities, and then turned northward and reached the Mississippi River in May, 1541, near the present site of Memphis. He crossed the river and explored much of the present state of Arkansas, and spent the winter there. His undaunted spirit would have taken him further west, but his men refused to follow him. He turned back, fell sick and May 21, 1542, found a grave in the mighty river he had discovered. His men built boats in which they floated down the river, and the survivors finally reached Mexico.

Such were the most important Spanish explorations in the sixteenth century, though that of Cabrillo who, in 1542, explored the western coast of California, might be mentioned. Spanish explorers had traversed a considerable portion of the southern part of the United States, and after a time settlements followed,

but slowly. In 1559 an unsuccessful attempt to plant a colony at Pensacola Bay, discouraged further trials for a time. The first permanent settlement, St. Augustine, Florida, the oldest town in the United States, followed the destruction of a French attempt to hold a part of Florida.

The religious wars in France led some of the leaders, particularly Admiral Coligny, to think of founding a Protestant state in the new world. Under the leadership of Jean Ribaut, a small party of Huguenots reached Florida (by which name the Spaniards called the whole Atlantic coast), and

Huguenots Try to Build a New State

coasted northward to the present Port Royal, South Carolina. A small fort was built in 1562, and thirty men were left while Ribaut returned for the remainder of the colony. The colonists quarrelled, mutinied, and after building a small vessel, attempted to return to France. Their privations on the voyage led to cannibalism before they were picked up by an English vessel and taken prisoners to England.

In 1564 a larger colony was sent out under René de Laudonnière, and Fort Caroline was built on the St. John's River in Florida. Thirteen of the sailors, believing that piracy offered greater profits than more peaceful pursuits, seized one of the vessels and began to search for Spanish ships. Finally they were forced to land in Havana, and to save themselves betrayed the fact that a French settlement had been made in Florida, which Spain claimed as her own. The news was quickly carried to Spain. Pedro Menendez de Aviles was already preparing to lead a colony to Florida. A French settlement in Florida would furnish a base for operations against Spanish settlements and against Spanish ships, and could not be tolerated. So Philip II granted Menendez three vessels and six hundred troops in addition to the force he had prepared, and the expedition sailed June 29, 1565. Florida was

Spain Finds a Settlement which Endures

reached early in September and a part of Ribaut's fleet, which had brought additional colonists and supplies to Fort Caroline, was sighted. Some of the party landed, September 6,



ARX CAROLINA: THE HUGUENOT SETTLEMENT ON THE RIVER OF MAY

Religious persecution in France during the latter half of the seventeenth century impelled a company of French Huguenots to emigrate to North America. Their first settlement on the coast of South Carolina was abandoned and the second on the St. John's River in Florida was destroyed by the Spaniards. This old print of Fort Caroline shows what they hoped to do rather than what they really accomplished.

1565, and laid the foundations for St. Augustine, the first European settlement which proved permanent within the limits of the United States.

The French fleet which had set out to attack Menendez, was scattered by a storm and, September 20th, that stern warrior made a night attack upon Fort Caroline. About one hundred and thirty men were killed, fifty escaped, and fifty women and children were spared. Some of those who escaped gave themselves up and were promptly butchered; others were picked up by a French ship. Menendez now turned his attention to those who had embarked with Ribaut to attack him. As we have said, the fleet had been scattered by a storm and some of the ships had been wrecked. About two hundred and fifty of the survivors, including Ribaut, were slaughtered after their surrender, but others who showed a disposition to fight to the end were allowed to leave the country. This ended French attempts to colonise Florida.

We are told that the slaughter did not go unavenged, though the story of retribution has been questioned. Dominic de Gourges, a French adventurer, set out with three ships in 1567 and the next

year captured the Spanish garrison which had been left in Fort Caroline — renamed San Mateo — and killed or hanged them all “Not as Spaniards but as traitors, robbers and murderers.”

Retribution Follows the Massacre at Fort Caroline

This was the French retort to the inscription Menendez is said to have raised over some of his victims: “Not as Frenchmen but as Lutherans.” Poetic justice, at least, would seem to demand that the story of the gallant Frenchman be true.

Charles IX of France and his stronger willed mother, Catherine de Medici, complained bitterly to Philip II and demanded redress. Philip defended the course of Menendez on the ground that the Huguenot settlement had been placed where it had no right to be, and to this statement there was no answer. France abandoned all attempts to occupy the southern half of the continent for more than a hundred years. The efforts of Pontgravé, Champlain, De Monts, La Salle, and the rest to build up a great colonial empire in the north, will be told in the Canadian history.

The English had rested content with the voyages of the Cabots for three-

quarters of a century until the sea rovers who preyed upon Spanish commerce again aroused interest in the New World.

The Sea Rovers of England Harry the Spaniards

Captain John Hawkins, the slaver, in defiance of Spanish laws, sold his slaves in the West Indies, visited the Huguenot colony in Florida, and gave a ship to Laudonnière, whom he found despairing of Ribaut's return to Fort Caroline. With his nephew, Francis Drake, in command of one of his five ships he was treacherously attacked in the harbour of Vera Cruz and three of his ships were destroyed. Some of his men actually made their way by land from Mexico to Nova Scotia. A little later (1577), Francis Drake sailed around Cape Horn in his ship the *Golden Hind*, coasted as far north as Oregon, perhaps, capturing Spanish treasure ships on the way, then striking westward finished the second circumnavigation of the globe in 1580.

At almost the same time, Martin Frobisher was sailing to Northern America in vain search for the north-west passage to India, failing to be sure, but placing his name among the immortals by his discoveries in the frozen north. He was almost immediately followed by John Davis who is remembered still by the strait which bears his name. Meanwhile, though there was no actual declaration of war, English sea rovers sailed the seas, attacking the clumsy Spanish ships when opportunity offered. The rich cargoes which were taken, the stories of the wealth of the Spanish possessions, the growing spirit of self-confidence, the increasing hostility to Spain, religious and commercial, all led the English to think of an empire beyond the seas as one method of humiliating their rival.

Englishmen Explore the Frozen North

Elizabeth, branded as illegitimate by Rome, and formally deposed by a Papal Bull, naturally did not recognise the right of the Pope to award the western world to Spain. In 1578, Sir Humphrey Gilbert set out to found a colony on the Atlantic coast of North America, but the little squadron met a Spanish fleet and returned to Plymouth. In command of one of his ships was his half brother,

the young Walter Raleigh. In 1583, Gilbert led another expedition toward Newfoundland, but two of his ships were wrecked and Gilbert himself went down, dying as he had lived, a brave gentleman.

By this time Raleigh was a particular favourite of Queen Elizabeth, who transferred to him his brother's patent.

Sir Walter Raleigh Dreams of a New England

On March 25, 1584, he was granted the right to hold and colonise "remote and barbarous lands, not actually possessed by any Christian prince, nor inhabited by Christian people, which he might discover within the next six years."

One-fifth of all the gold and silver found was to belong to the crown. Especially noteworthy is the promise that the colonists should have all the rights and privileges of Englishmen, and that they should be governed by laws of their own making, provided that they were not opposed to the laws of England. Such a grant of self-government was as liberal as it is unusual in the history of colonisation.

Raleigh immediately sent out two ships under Philip Amidas and Arthur Barlow, directing his captains to sail southward. On July 4, 1584, they reached the coast of what is now North Carolina, and coasted along the shore for some distance before passing into the broad waters of what is now Pamlico Sound. Anchoring by an island, which the Indians called Roanoke, they were delighted with the trees, the vegetation, the grapes, the abundance of fish and the gentleness of the Indians who visited them, two of whom they carried back to England. Their report was calculated to excite enthusiasm in the breast of every reader.

Roanoke Island is Seen by Raleigh's Captains

The next year, Raleigh sent a hundred men under Ralph Lane to make a settlement in "Virginia." Lane was brave and energetic, but tactless in his dealings with the natives. He explored the coast, pressed some distance into the interior, and went up the Roanoke River far enough to discover that it did not lead into the Pacific Ocean. Generally the men spent more time hunting gold than in preparing a permanent settlement and the Indians grew tired of feeding them.



INDIAN HUNTERS AS JOHN WHITE SAW THEM

John White, the governor of Sir Walter Raleigh's second colony on Roanoke Island, was also a member of the first colony. While in the country the first time he made a large number of drawings of the Indians, which have been preserved. This shows the method of cooking which he saw. The English were much astonished by the great variety of fish which they found in the shallow waters of the sounds.

Finally Sir Francis Drake touched at the settlement in 1586 on his return from a cruise after Spanish ships, and as the supply ship from England was overdue, Lane and his companions returned to England. They had hardly started on their voyage, when Sir Richard Grenville arrived with supplies and additions to the colony. Finding the settlement deserted, he left fifteen men with a large quantity of supplies to hold the country for the king of England, and he too sought the Spanish treasure ships.

Lane had heard something of the Chesapeake Bay from the Indians, and reported to Raleigh that it was probably better adapted to colonisation than Roanoke Island. So John White, who had accompanied Lane, was appointed governor. With one hundred and fifty colonists, including twenty-five women and children, he left England, May 8, 1587, with orders to settle on Chesapeake Bay. He was, however, instructed to go first to Roanoke Island to pick up the men and the supplies Grenville had left. The captain, it seems, carried the colony over

by contract, and was anxious to go on his way. While White and the men were on shore searching for the little garrison Grenville had left, we are told that the impatient seaman put the colony and its goods on shore and sailed away, leaving a small vessel which was Raleigh's property. Grenville's men had evidently been killed by the Indians, and the supplies were scattered and destroyed.

Governor White's daughter, Eleanor, the wife of Ananias Dare, on August 18, gave birth to a daughter. She was promptly named Virginia, and has the distinction of being the first child born of English parents within the limits of the present United States.

The First English Child in America

When the child was only a few days old, Governor White, at the urgent request of the colonists, sailed for England to obtain supplies to replace those Grenville had left. He found England aroused by the expected coming of the Spanish Armada, and not till 1591 was he able to return, though Raleigh twice attempted to send out relief ships.

Governor White found the island de-

serted, the fort destroyed, and only the word "Croatoan" carved on a tree. It

The Lost Colony of Roanoke

had been agreed that the colonists should indicate where they had gone if it were deemed wise to abandon the settlement. If in peril they were to add a cross. Croatan was the region on the mainland inhabited by some friendly Indians. Meanwhile a storm arose and the ship was damaged. The captain refused to remain longer and carried Governor White to England in spite of his protests. Though Raleigh had been impoverished by his expenditures, and had lost the favour of Queen Elizabeth, he made two efforts to find the colonists, but without success. Later the Jamestown colonists were told that all had been killed by the Indians except four. Whether they perished of hardship, were massacred, or, as some think, were adopted by the Indians, no one knows. The last theory has been vigorously advocated by some investigators who claim that they found Indians with red hair and blue eyes, and that a tradition of ancestors from across the sea persisted among them. They cannot be said to have proved their case, and the mystery of the "Lost Colony of Roanoke" is unsolved to this day.

Only one other nation had a part in the exploration of the New World. In 1609, Henry Hudson, an Englishman in the service of the Dutch East India Company, in the "Half Moon" sailed along the Atlantic Coast and entered the Delaware River, but did not explore it. Further north, he entered the great river which has since borne his name, passed by Manhattan Island, then densely wooded, and continued up the

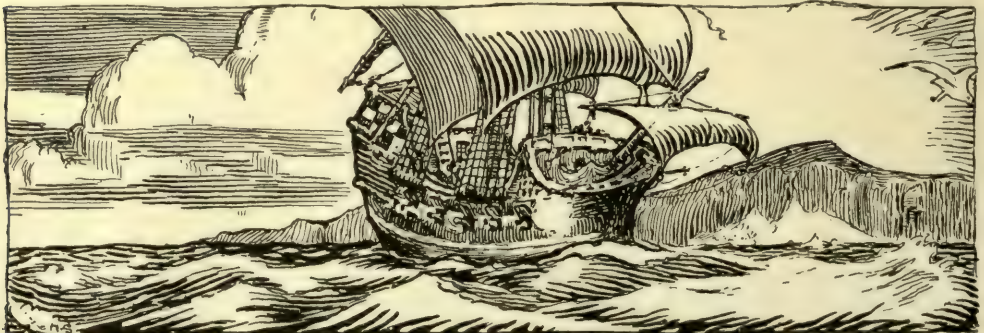
Henry Hudson and His River

river, thinking perhaps he had found a passage to Asia. He was undeceived by the growing shallowness of the water as he neared the present site of Albany, but his employers realised the possible value of the river as a base for the fur trade. Hudson returned to the English flag after this voyage, and perished amid snow and ice on the great bay to the north which also bears his name. An account of this expedition will be found in the History of Canada, elsewhere in this volume.

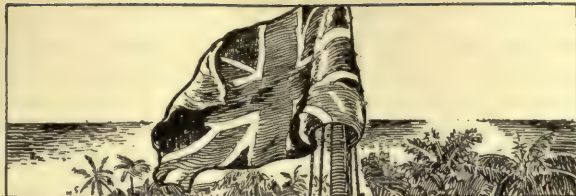
The explorations of the French and their settlements along the St. Lawrence properly belong to the history of Canada and will be discussed there. We may mention here, however, the probability that a temporary trading post was established on the Hudson in 1540. We shall also tell in a succeeding chapter of the successful attempts of the English to found permanent colonies beginning with Jamestown, Virginia, in 1607, and of the efforts of the Dutch and the Swedes to hold a part of the new land.

Up to the founding of Jamestown, the Spanish settlement at St. Augustine (1565), and the little town of Santa Fe, New Mexico (1605?), were the only groups of white men in the present limits of the United States. Thousands of Spaniards had come to America but they had made their homes in the West Indies, in Mexico, or further to the south. The Spaniards had, however, explored the interior in different directions and further settlement was not to be long delayed. The French had done little, and the English even less, but these two nations were in the next century and a half to become bitter rivals for the control of the great continent.

A Hundred Years of Exploration



AMERICA



COLONISATION
OF
THE SOUTH

ENGLISH SETTLEMENTS IN THE SOUTH

THE FLAG OF ENGLAND FIRMLY PLANTED IN THE NEW WORLD

THOUGH Sir Walter Raleigh's attempts to found a colony in America had resulted in failure and disaster, interest in Virginia did not die. Efforts to procure pecuniary aid from the crown had failed, however, for Elizabeth did not like to spend money. Raleigh, after expending, according to his account, \$200,000 on the work — a sum equal to at least \$1,000,000 at the present value of money — felt unable to continue. Soon after the accession of James I he began that long imprisonment which ended (1618) in death by the headsman's axe.

**Raleigh's Belief
in the
Future of Virginia**

His faith in the destiny of Virginia never wavered, and from his confinement in the Tower he saw the beginning of the English nation in Virginia which he had prophesied. He had no share in the actual settlement, but his influence persisted in spite of his disgrace — if it were a disgrace to be in the bad graces of King James. Ten men who had been associated with his effort to establish the second colony also had a part in the founding of the permanent colony at Jamestown.

The spirit of adventure had grown with the exploits of the sea kings who had harried Spanish commerce and had defeated the Armada. Men had heard of the strange sights which Sir Francis Drake had seen, and of the stirring actions against the Spaniards in the Pacific as well as in the Atlantic. The latter part of the reign of Elizabeth was so filled with the new, the strange and the romantic that difficulties seemed mere trifles. Why should not Spain be cut off from connection with the Western World? Why should not the mines from which that country had drawn such treasure of gold and silver be taken over

by England? If this project must wait for a time, was it likely that Spain had found all the mines in America? A claim to that part of America north of Florida had been asserted. Why should it not be made good and its treasures be brought to England? Such questions as these were constantly asked.

Then too there were reasons purely economic. The population in England in Raleigh's time was hardly more than 5,000,000. But it was the

**England in
the Time
of James I** general opinion that the island was becoming overcrowded.

The cost of living had increased, largely because of the great increase in the supply of gold and silver which the Spaniards had brought from the western world, but wages had not risen in proportion. On the contrary work was harder to get because of the change in agricultural conditions which had been going on for a century. English wool always had a good reputation, and the weavers of Flanders eagerly bid for it. The landowners, therefore, had found it profitable to divert much of their land from cultivation to sheep-farming. Since one or two men can care for the sheep on a tract which would require dozens for its cultivation, thousands were thrown out of employment, and crowded the labour market. This condition had begun to be noticed nearly a hundred years before, as is shown in Sir Thomas More's "Utopia," and now markets for English goods on the continent were being closed, and expansion was the watchword. The merchants engaged in the foreign trade, however, had previously enjoyed great prosperity, and some of them risked some of their surplus wealth in the venture of colonisation. These colonies were to be exten-

sions of England beyond the seas, and would afford markets for surplus products and supply raw materials as well.

Raleigh had dreamed of a new England, and others had the same vision of a place to which the unfortunates of England might go and begin anew. With the death of Elizabeth, and the accession of James I, sailors were no longer encouraged to harass Spanish commerce and the idea of settlements in Virginia came to be more widely held. The Earl of Southampton, Shakespeare's friend, sent an exploring expedition to

**Explorers
who Carried
England's Flag**

North Virginia, later to be called New England, in 1602; the next year Bristol merchants sent Martin

Pring to the same region, and Bartholomew Gilbert, Sir Humphrey's son, lost his life along the Chesapeake Bay. Another expedition sent by the Earl of Southampton, Lord Arundel, and Sir Ferdinando Gorges, of whom we shall hear again, spent a month of 1605 in North Virginia and brought back five captive Indians. The stories of all these voyages inflamed popular interest. The time for settlement had come.

On April 10, 1606, James I issued a charter to "divers and sundry of our loving subjects," giving the right to establish settlements along the Atlantic Coast. To certain members residing in or near London and, therefore, called the London Company, was given the right to establish settlements between 34° and 41°, while to a second company, called from the residence of some of its permanent members, the Plymouth Company, was given the right of settlement between 38° and 45°. Three degrees, 38° to 41°, were therefore open to either company, provided that settlements must be kept 100 miles apart. The idea was, apparently, that each colony should occupy a tract a hundred miles square, and extend as far into the ocean to include any islands within that distance from the coast.

A somewhat elaborate form of government was set forth. Final determination of all questions lay

**The Government
of the
Colonies**

in a Royal Council of Virginia to consist of thirteen members appointed by the king, but there was to

be a resident council in each colony. The first resident councils were to be appointed by the central council, but afterwards they were to fill their own vacancies and appoint one of their members to act as governor. The right to coin money, drive out intruders, to punish offenders and to levy duties on importations was given to the local councils. All settlers were to enjoy the "Liberties, Franchises and Immunities" of Englishmen. For seven years no tax or duty of any sort was to be levied upon goods sent to either of the colonies. This plan was really a proprietorship.

The Plymouth Company was ready first, and a small expedition set out, only to be captured by the Spaniards. Their second expedition, though later by a few months than the first expedition of the London Company, may properly be mentioned here.

Two ships with about a hundred and twenty settlers set out May 31, 1607, and after exploring the coast for some time,

**The Settlement
at
Sagadahoc**

built a rude fort at Sagadahoc, on the west bank near the mouth of the Kennebec River within

the present state of Maine. It was too late to plant a crop, if the settlers had been so inclined, and a vain search for gold and silver occupied them until winter, for which they were unprepared. More than half the colonists returned to England on the ships that had brought them out. Those who remained could not endure the winter's cold. Their leader died, their storehouse burned, and when the ship with supplies arrived in 1608, the survivors were glad to return to England to tell of their hardships. The Plymouth Company made no further important effort to utilise this grant, and later it was revoked as we shall learn in another place.

Meanwhile the London Company on December 6, 19, 1606, sent out something more than one hundred men in three ships, the "Susan Constant," the "Godspeed" and the "Discovery." Dropping down to the Canary Islands, the course was held to the West Indies, and after some bad weather the entrance of the Chesapeake Bay was reached on April 26, 1607. Entering a great river

ENGLISH SETTLEMENTS IN THE SOUTH

which was named for their king, they landed on a little peninsula thirty-two miles from the mouth and began the construction of a fort. So the settlement of Jamestown began. In this they followed instructions drawn up in England, probably by the famous geographer, Richard Hakluyt. The massacre of the Huguenots in Florida was remembered, and Spain claimed this territory likewise.

The men were little fitted for such an undertaking. Twenty-nine of the small company were classed as "gentlemen" but there were six carpenters, only one blacksmith, and one mason. Among the others were "jewellers, gold-refiners and a perfumer." The gentlemen had neither the strength nor the skill for manual labour, if they had had the inclination, and the same may be said of many of the others. The country was explored and the search for gold was prosecuted with greater zeal than the more prosaic work of preparing the land for the planting. The prolonged voyage had left the colony with scanty supplies, some of the Indians proved unfriendly, and worst of all the low marshy location was unfortunate.

With such handicaps wise guidance was doubly necessary, but dissension and faction were present from the beginning. The council seemed helpless in the face of its difficulties. The men drank the river water, and fever raged. The summer sun was hotter than anything the settlers had ever known. Strange to say, though the woods were full of game, little attention seems to have been given to hunting. Corn enough to keep off starvation was with difficulty procured from the Indians, but death took heavy toll. When Captain Newport returned in January, 1608, with supplies and recruits, only forty of the original company remained. Perhaps it is not surprising

that men did not work with more zeal for all the fruit of their labour went into a common storehouse, and the lazy or the inefficient fared as well as the thrifty.

That the colony did not perish entirely is due to the energy and resourcefulness of one man, Captain John Smith, whose story reads like a misplaced page from the Arabian Nights. It is possible that he drew upon his imagination in his story of his adventures, both in and out of Virginia, but what is undisputed is wonderful enough. When he became

governor in 1608, he ruled with vigour, and kept his hungry crew in some sort of order. He attempted to establish industries, and was able to deal successfully with the Indians, who grew unfriendly as they knew white men better.

The recruits sent to the colony were even less suited to the task than the first comers. They brought more mouths to fill without proportionately increasing the producers, and were generally insubordinate. On the departure of Smith to Eng-

land, to secure surgical treatment, in 1609, anarchy ensued. The following winter was known as the "starving time," and we are told that cannibalism occurred. In spite of many deaths large re-inforcements had come, but the five hundred persons whom Smith had left were reduced to sixty before spring, and the remnant was on the point of abandoning the colony when the new governor, Lord Delaware, arrived with additional settlers and abundant supplies.

Lord Delaware had been appointed governor for life under the amended charter of 1609, and until his death in 1618 ruled by deputies. One of them, Sir Thomas Dale, was harsh, almost merciless, but he kept order, punished the idlers, and took steps to abolish communism. The profit in growing tobacco was discovered, and the colony gradually stood upon its feet, and small



CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH

A native of Lincolnshire, Smith in 1608 became the leader of the band of colonists who settled on James River, in Virginia. Keeping the colony alive for two years, an accident necessitated his return to England for surgical aid.

Hard Times
in
Virginia

settlements grew up along the river.

This new charter of 1609 was intended to correct obvious faults in the older instrument. It changed the incorporators into a joint stock company with unlimited membership, which any man might join by buying one or more shares of stock. The members were to elect a council resident in London to which large powers were given. The territory was enlarged to extend two hundred miles north and the same distance south of Point Comfort, and through the continent. The incorporators included 609 individuals and the 56 companies of London. The company was the proprietor, owning the colony in Virginia. From a financial standpoint the colony was never profitable. In 1618, we are told that the company had spent \$400,000, owed \$25,000 more, and that there were only 600 persons in the colony.

The year 1619 is a memorable one in the history of Virginia. The governor, Sir George Yeardley, called an assembly to be composed of two men elected from each of the eleven settlements then in existence, and a Dutch ship, passing by, sold the colony twenty negro slaves. A blessing and a curse came together.

The company had become with the changes in its charter a large and democratic association, and friends of James

The Virginia Company Passes its Charter

I persuaded him that it was a "seminary of sedition." Proceedings to forfeit the charter were

begun in 1623, were completed June 16, 1624, and Virginia became a Royal Colony. The citizens of Virginia continued to elect their representatives to the Assembly, but the Governor and the Council were chosen by the Crown. Events in England occupied the attention of Charles I, who succeeded his father in 1625, and Virginia was left alone to develop her own institutions. Some of the

royal governors were inefficient, and others were weak. In 1642 Sir William Berkeley was appointed, and governed the colony through ten years of prosperity.

The sympathies of the colonists were with the king through his struggles with the Puritans; and with the defeat of the Royalist cause, and the execution of Charles I, thousands of Cavaliers came to Virginia. Charles II was invited to come to his loyal colony but had no desire to dwell in his distant province, which



"PRINCESS POCAHONTAS"

The daughter of an Indian chief, she befriended the early Virginia settlers, and eventually married an Englishman. Embracing Christianity, she sailed with her husband for England, but died off Gravesend in March, 1617, leaving a son.

lacked the luxuries so dear to his heart. Cromwell sent commissioners to receive the submission of the colony. No resistance was made, and the Puritan party took control in 1652. Except for a contest with Catholic Maryland there was little disturbance until Richard Cromwell resigned the Protectorate. Berkeley, who had continued to reside in Virginia, was then recalled, but his disposition had been soured by his experiences, and his rule was harsh and apparently corrupt. His neglect to protect outlying settlements against the In-

dians finally led to his downfall.

There had been several difficulties with the Indians. An attack in 1622 had caused alarm and another in 1644 likewise, but the Indians were se-

Bacon's Rebellion verely punished. The more serious Indian uprising in 1667

was quelled by a force raised by Nathaniel Bacon without the authority of Governor Berkeley. But for the leader's untimely death this defiant association would have resulted in revolution. The spirit of the people was shown so plainly, however, that Berkeley, so long the Royal Governor, was replaced, called to England to explain his conduct, and died of a broken heart.

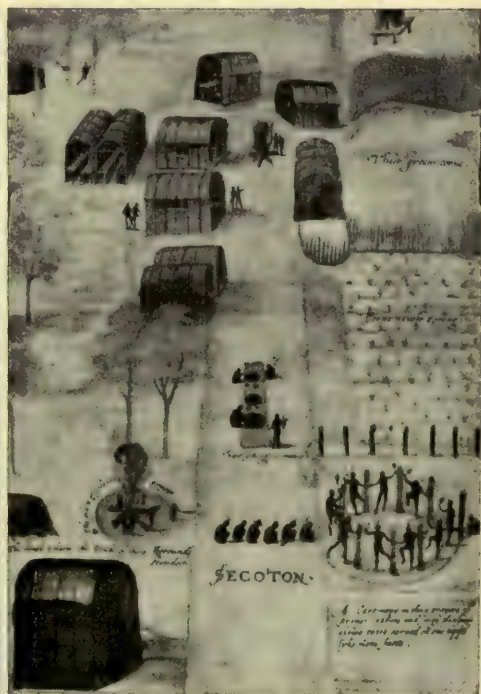
Though not the next colony settled, let us now turn to Virginia's neighbour, Maryland. With the downfall of the



THE NATIVE TOWN OF POMEIOCK SURROUNDED BY A WALL OF POLES



FORT BUILT BY GOVERNOR LANE



THE NATIVE TOWN OF SECOTON

THE FIRST ENGLISH COLONY ON ROANOKE ISLAND

From the original drawings made by John White in 1585.

HISTORY OF THE WORLD

London Company in 1624, the great territory granted to it lapsed to the crown. Very soon a grant to the south of the Virginia settlements was made to Sir Robert Heath (1629) but was not improved. On the north, a province was given to George Calvert, first Baron of Baltimore. This gentleman had been a faithful servant of James I, and had already made an unsuccessful attempt to plant a colony in Newfoundland. Though he had announced his conversion to Catholicism, he continued to enjoy the friendship of James, and of Charles I afterwards. The latter gave to him a province north of the Potomac but before the charter had passed the seals (1632) Baltimore died, and the charter was secured to his son Cecilius, the second Lord Baltimore, a prudent and liberal man.

Large powers of government were granted, the same as those enjoyed by any Bishop of Durham, except that the freemen should have a share in making laws. The bishopric of Durham was made a Palatinate by William the Conqueror, because on the border he wished a strong ruler who at the same time would not conspire to bequeath his powers and privileges to his heirs. Since this question could not arise with the Bishop, that official was given within the the Palatinate what were practically kingly powers. "Whatever the king might do in England the Bishop might do in Durham."

The first settlers reached Maryland, so named in honour of the Queen, Henriette Marie, in March, 1634, under the leadership of Leonard Calvert, brother of the Proprietor. Full advantage had been taken of the mistakes of the Virginia colony. The site of an old Indian village was purchased from the owners who were about to move away, and the other Indians in the neighbourhood were content to live in peace with the white men.

Little time was spent hunting for gold, and planting began at once. There was no scarcity of food, the site was healthful, and the progress of the little settlement, which was called St. Mary's, though slow, was uninterrupted by those disasters which had almost overwhelmed

Virginia, and gradually population spread.

Though no special mention of toleration of Catholics is made in the charter, the provisions do not specifically forbid such a policy, and it is generally assumed that Baltimore, with the tacit consent of Charles I, intended from the first to provide a refuge for his proscribed brethren, who, however, came slowly at first, as they had hopes of greater freedom in England. Since it was desired that Catholics should be undisturbed, it was obviously wise that religious questions should not be raised, and Puritans were likewise welcome. Except for a few years under the Commonwealth when the Protestant element secured control through the aid of their brethren in Virginia and passed penal laws against all Catholics, the principle of religious toleration was a settled policy. The "Toleration Act" of 1649, which made belief in Jesus Christ the sole religious test, fairly represented the position of the Calverts. In 1652, Parliament took away the government from Lord Baltimore though recognising his rights in the soil, but in 1657 all his rights under the charter were restored.

The colony, as has been said, grew slowly at first, but the wise policy of the Proprietor gradually attracted a larger number of settlers, and developed in time a loyalty which was of service. Puritans and Anglicans, both in England and America, were attracted to this wise and tactful man whose religious opinions both detested. Virginia had made several unsuccessful attempts to secure the annexation of the province before the Restoration, but afterward relations were amicable. After the accession of William and Mary the crown took over the government, though the revenues were not disturbed, but a quarter of a century later (1715) full proprietary rights were restored to the fourth Lord Baltimore, who had become a Protestant, and the colony remained in control of the family until the Revolution. The boundary disputes will be discussed under Pennsylvania.

Though again out of the chronological order, perhaps it will be as well to take up the settlement of the Carolinas. As

ENGLISH SETTLEMENTS IN THE SOUTH

has been mentioned, Charles I had granted (1629) the territory south of Virginia called "Carolana" to Sir Robert Heath. No attempt at settlement was made, and in 1663 Charles II re-granted it to eight favourites. These were Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon; George Monk, Duke of Albemarle; William, Lord Craven; John, Lord Berkeley; Anthony, Lord Ashley (later Earl of Shaftesbury), and Sir George Carteret, Sir William Berkeley and Sir John Colleton. The boundaries assigned were 31° to 36° , extending through the continent, and full powers of government were given, as extensive as those enjoyed by any Bishop of Durham. The charter further gave the right to grant titles of nobility, provided that they were different from those used in England. Two years later the grant was extended to include all territory between Virginia and Florida.

The Proprietors published advertisements for settlers, but as a matter of fact, there were settlers already within the limits of the colony. Led by the desire for good land, a band of settlers from Virginia had reached Albemarle Sound in 1653 or 1654 and others had followed. One of the Proprietors, Sir William Berkeley, Governor of Virginia, appointed William Drummond governor of this Albemarle settlement in 1664, and an assembly was soon authorised. Nearly all of the first settlers came from Virginia. In 1660 a party from New England had settled at the mouth of the Cape Fear River, but soon left; it is said, because of trouble with the Indians. In 1665 Sir John Yeamans occupied the abandoned territory which was called Clarendon.

In March, 1670, an expedition was sent out by the Proprietors to settle at Port Royal, but for fear of the Spaniards sailed up the Ashley River and made a little settlement which was called Charles Town. The present site of Charleston was settled two years later, and after a few years the earlier settlement was abandoned and the name transferred to the larger settlement. French Huguenots began to come about 1680, and proved a desirable addition to the popu-

lation. A settlement of Scotchmen was made at Port Royal in 1683 and its fate proved that the first settlers had acted wisely in refusing to build on the coast. A Spanish fleet burned Port Royal in 1686.

So we see three little centres of settlement in Carolina; Albemarle on the north, Clarendon in the centre, and Charleston to the south. The first and third were permanent, but there were not settlers for all three, and Clarendon gradually declined and was soon abandoned.

From the first the Albemarle and Charleston settlements differed widely. The Albemarle settlement was a frontier.

The harbours were poor, and communication was had with England chiefly through Virginia.

The first settlers were generally poor, and since additions came slowly, the Assembly attempted to stimulate immigration by providing that debts previously contracted outside the colony were outlawed; that for a period of five years no settler could be sued for any cause of action arising outside the colony; and that all new settlers should be exempt from taxation for one year. These acts were approved by the Proprietors, who seemed to wish population at any cost, and, naturally, some immigration of an undesirable character followed. The settlers in Albemarle were more scattered than in any other English colony and the structure of society was less aristocratic than in any other southern colony.

The Charleston settlement on the other hand was compact and continued to centre around the town. There was trouble with the governors, during the early years, but the disputes were perhaps more dignified than in Albemarle. The discovery that rice would grow in the colony, and the later introduction of the culture of indigo, led to the establishment of large plantations with many slaves, in striking contrast to the northern colony where slaves were fewer. Men of ability became rich and the structure of society was distinctly aristocratic.

Meanwhile the Proprietors, though they spent comparatively little money on the province, and in fact took little real

The Province
of
Carolina

The First
Settlers of
Carolina

Differences
Between Settlers
in Carolina

interest in it, provided it with one of the curiosities of government in American history. This was the "Fundamental Constitutions" drawn in 1669 by the philosopher, John Locke, then serving as tutor in the Ashley family. This instrument was a clumsy attempt to put into effect the powers granted by the royal charter, and to express the ideal of government which was dying in England. It contemplated a feudal state of the middle ages. Since it was never put into full effect only brief mention need be made. The Proprietors had been authorised to grant titles of nobility, and so three orders were provided, as well as common or free men. Only a man holding at least fifty acres of land could vote. It was expected that society would remain fixed. No man was expected to rise out of the class in which he was born. Each Proprietor was expected to be represented in Carolina by a deputy, and the deputy of the oldest was to be the governor of the colony. The "Parliament" was to be composed of the Proprietors or their deputies, the landgraves, the caciques and the representatives of the freemen. All sat and deliberated together, but each order voted separately, and if any order declared a proposal contrary to the Fundamental Constitutions, it could not pass. An elaborate system of courts was to be organised, and the judges and other high officers were to be made independent of the assembly, since their salaries were to be paid from the land revenue. Altogether it was an absurd, unworkable plan, for a country so thinly settled that it can hardly be said to have been settled at all. One provision, however, probably due to Locke's own convictions, and not to his instructions, allowed any seven persons to form a church organisation and worship in perfect freedom, though attempts to establish the Anglican Church were made.

The people would have none of the Constitutions and no vigorous attempt to enforce the whole instrument was made, though the Proprietors for thirty years made spasmodic efforts to induce the settlers to accept some of the provisions,

The attempt to impose the Navigation Act led to trouble. There were serious difficulties in Albemarle, where a considerable trade with New England had been developed and at times that turbulent colony refused to accept the governor sent out and lived without a head. The Proprietors neglected the Albemarle colony, and the settlers did not object. The majority was entirely content to be let alone.

Gradually settlers came. Many French Huguenots settled in the south and a smaller number in North Carolina, for the province was divided in common speech as early as 1690, though separate governors were not appointed until 1714. English Quakers, Swiss, Germans and Scotch came in the early years. The increasing number of settlers excited alarm among the Indians, and in 1711, a conspiracy, headed by the Tuscaroras, was formed to murder all the white men in North Carolina. But for the help of South Carolina and Virginia the attempt might have succeeded; but the power of the Tuscaroras was broken in 1713 and they soon migrated to New York to join their Iroquois kinsmen, and the Five Nations became the Six Nations.

The majority of the first Proprietors, or their heirs, sold their rights in Carolina, and the new Proprietors and the people were alike dissatisfied. The Proprietors received no profit, and the settlers were determined to rule themselves. In 1729 the king purchased the rights of all the Proprietors except one, whose share of the land was laid off along the Virginia line. The Crown resumed all rights of government and North and South Carolina assumed their positions as Royal Provinces. Some of the royal governors sent out were little better than those sent out by the Proprietors, but, on the whole, the general type was higher.

About this time settlers appeared in considerable numbers in the back country, though comparatively few made their way from the sea coast. For the most part they were German Palatines who had suffered hardships in their own country, and immigrants from the North of Ireland. Generally they landed at Philadel-

Racial Elements in the Population of the Carolinas



J. SMITH



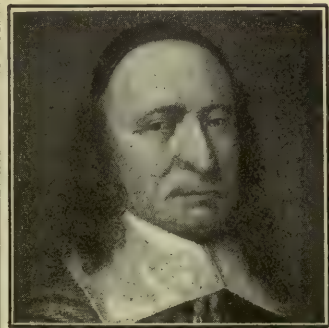
CALVERT



MONK



CLARENDON



STUYVESANT



PENN

GREAT MEN IN COLONIAL DAYS

These six men had a great deal to do with the early days of the colonies. Captain John Smith saved Virginia, and explored and named New England. Lord Baltimore founded Maryland. Peter Stuyvesant was the last Dutch governor of New Amsterdam, and William Penn founded the great State named in his honour. George Monk, Duke of Albemarle, was the commander of the army, and Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, was one of the most powerful noblemen of his time in England. They helped to found Carolina.

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phia and proceeded first into western Pennsylvania. Some of the Germans remained and became the ancestors of the "Pennsylvania Dutch" of the present day, and the "Scotch-Irish" blood also persists. Others finding the country crowded, according to the ideas of the time, turned southward into what is now West Virginia, western Virginia, and western North and South Carolina. These men made ideal pioneers and gave a colour to the sections in which they settled which persists to the present day.

The settlement of Georgia belongs to a much later period than the other colonies already mentioned, but for the sake of convenience may be mentioned here. General James Oglethorpe, after winning some distinction as a soldier, entered Parliament and soon became the champion of the inmates of the debtors' prisons. Believing that many of the inmates might succeed in beginning life anew in different surroundings, he interested other benevolent men in the project of colonisation. He was able in 1732 to secure a grant of land between the Savannah River and Florida, for the "Trustees of the Colony of Georgia," but for twenty-one years only. Since it was to be a military outpost against the Spaniards as well as a refuge for the failures, slavery was forbidden and land grants were to be small, so that the

white population would be large in proportion to the area. A few settlers came in 1733 under the leadership of Oglethorpe and founded Savannah, but growth was slow on account of the restrictions. Some German settlers arrived in 1734, and later some Scotch Highlanders, but the class for which the colony was planted did not take full advantage of the opportunities. Few came and fewer gratified the expectations of the trustees by becoming good citizens. Skirmishes with the Spaniards occurred, but the sturdy colonists were able to maintain their ground, and made considerable profits from the fur trade. The restrictions on slavery, and on the amount of land to be held by a single person, were removed after a time but the colony was founded so late that it was still weak at the time of the Revolution. General Oglethorpe and his associates, discouraged by the difficulties they had met and disappointed in their philanthropic hopes, surrendered the colony to the Crown in 1752.

Three men who afterwards won great fame in England were at one time residents of Georgia. These were John Wesley, the founder of Methodism, and his brother Charles, and George Whitefield, the famous preacher. Charles Wesley acted as secretary to Oglethorpe, and the others preached to the Indians.

The Settlement of Georgia



Broad Street, in Augusta, Georgia, a beautiful Southern city.

AMERICA



COLONISA-
TION OF
THE NORTH

THE NEW ENGLAND COLONIES

THE PURITANS AND THEIR IDEAS ON RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT

THE attempt to found a settlement on the Kennebec River in 1607 failed, as has been told in another chapter. The Plymouth Colony made no further organised attempt to settle the territory granted to it, though Sir Ferdinando Gorges, always interested in America, sent Captain John Smith to explore the land after his return to England from Virginia. In 1614, Smith began his exploration, mapped the coast from Cape Cod to Nova Scotia, and gave the region the name "New England," but

The New England Council no settlers came. Some of the original Plymouth patentees, with new associates, asked for a new charter, and, in 1620, the king granted to Sir Ferdinando Gorges and others the land between 40° and 48°. The name of the new corporation was "The Council established at Plymouth in the County of Devon for the Planting, Ruling and Governing of New England in America," and is usually known as the "New England Council." The leading spirit during its whole existence was Sir Ferdinando Gorges, soldier and administrator, whose attention had possibly been directed to colonisation while occupying the office of governor of Plymouth.

Meanwhile in Old England the policy of James I was sowing the seeds which later ripened under his son. His conceptions of the powers and responsibilities of a king embraced secular and religious questions alike. There were growing up in England little congregations which refused to be bound by the usages and doctrines of the established church. Under Elizabeth they had been treated with severity which was much increased under James I. The ministers were driven from their churches, and both ministers and leading men were imprisoned. As a re-

sult, many made their way to Holland, where alone in Europe religious toleration existed. Among the emigrants in 1608 were members of the little congregation of Scrooby in Nottinghamshire.

Life in Holland was, however, unsatisfactory in many ways, and the leaders determined to seek a home in Virginia.

The Plan of the First Colony

A grant of land was obtained from the London Company, and capital was secured from some London merchants. A share was £10, and every colonist sixteen years old or over was rated as equivalent to one share. Children between ten and sixteen were equivalent to one-half share. All the earnings of the colony beyond a bare subsistence were to be placed in a common store for seven years. At the division the capitalist was to receive for every £10 he had contributed, a part of the profits equal to that allotted to each colonist. Children under ten years should have fifty acres of land. It was a hard bargain, but the would-be colonists had no choice for they were poor and friendless. Leaving Delfthaven in 1620 in the "Speedwell," they joined some friends who had embarked on the "Mayflower" at Southampton.

Both ships set out for America, but the "Speedwell" leaked so badly that it was forced to turn back, and finally the

The "Mayflower" Reaches America little "Mayflower" went on alone with a hundred passengers. On the 29th

of November they reached land, but they had been carried far out of their way, and the land they saw was the desolate northern end of Cape Cod in a region which had been granted to the New England Council. After some discussion they determined

to settle in the vicinity and after exploring the coast for a month landed at a spot which had been called Plymouth on John Smith's map. Since they had neither a patent for the land, nor a charter giving political rights, the heads of families, the "Pilgrim Fathers," as we call them, had drawn up in the cabin of their ship the "Mayflower Compact," binding themselves to be governed by the majority. John Carver was chosen governor and several advisers were named.

If the Virginia settlers had found the southern sun intolerable, this little colony found the winter's cold more intense than anything they had known. During the winter more than half the colony died, including Governor Carver, but, nothing daunted, the remainder began bravely to build houses and plant a crop when the welcome spring finally arrived. Under the wise leadership of William Bradford, who was chosen governor every year except five, until his death in 1657, they made treaties with the Indians, broke up the communistic system, and with much difficulty paid off the money advanced to them by the London merchants, chiefly through the profits of the fur trade.

Agriculture and fishing were, however, the chief interests of the frugal colony. They had little difficulty with the Indians at first, since the savages believed that a terrible pestilence which had raged, just before the Pilgrims came, had come upon them because they had murdered some white fishermen. The colony grew very slowly, numbering in 1630 only 300 souls, but afterward settlers came faster. The colony was always small, however, and in 1670 included only 8,000 persons who were scattered in twenty towns. In 1630 a patent giving them the land upon which they had settled was secured from the New England Council but the colony never had a charter giving any rights of government. On account of its weakness and its peaceable demeanour the little colony did not attract unfriendly notice in England and it was undisturbed until united in 1691 to the Massachusetts Bay Colony of which we shall now speak.

The Pilgrim Fathers were Separatists who had definitely left the established

church. There was, however, in England a large Puritan party, which, claiming the right to remain in the church, demanded that it be further "purified" from the "errors of Rome." This party was strong, wealthy and influential. During the bitter contest with Charles I, which began as soon as he ascended the throne and finally led to his death, some of the leaders determined to emigrate to America; where they might worship in the simple form which their conscience demanded. Scattered fishing settlements had been planted north of the Plymouth Colony and the coast was becoming fairly well known. In 1628 a patent for the territory lying between boundaries three miles north of the Merrimac, or any part thereof, and three miles south of the Charles, and extending from sea to sea, was secured from the New England Council. A year later (March 1, 1629) the grant was confirmed by Charles I and a royal charter was issued, constituting the "Governor and Company of Massachusetts Bay in Newe England." Already in 1628 John Endicott had led a little colony to the present site of Salem. In 1629 advantage was taken of the fact that the charter failed to specify where the meetings of the company should be held, and the Company and the charter itself were removed to New England. The next year (1630) John Winthrop, with eleven ships and a thousand settlers, arrived in Massachusetts. Several towns were founded, but the headquarters of the government were fixed on a hilly peninsula called by the Indians Shawmut. This settlement was soon given the name of Boston, from the old town in Lincolnshire from which some of the settlers had come.

There was considerable sickness and some suffering during the first winter, but much less than had attended the planting of some of the other colonies. Settlers and supplies came rapidly, and at least 20,000 persons, possibly more, came out within fifteen years. After that time, the struggles with Charles I, and the subsequent triumph of the Commonwealth, kept the Puritans at home, and the chief growth of the colony was from within. This growth was so rapid that

**The Puritan
Exodus
Begins**

**Slow Growth
of the
Colony**

**Settlers
Come
Rapidly**



THE MAYFLOWER, IN WHICH THE PILGRIM FATHERS VOYAGED TO AMERICA

On September 6th, 1620, the Mayflower, a vessel of 180 tons, spread her sails from Plymouth harbour, carrying forty-one men and their families, 102 persons in all. It had been decided to make the passage in the company of the Speedwell, but the latter was found to leak badly, with the result that the Mayflower made the voyage alone. From the painting by W. F. Halsall



PILGRIM FATHERS SIGNING THE COMPACT IN THE CABIN OF THE MAYFLOWER

Two days after sighting land at Cape Cod, Massachusetts, the famous compact was drawn up and duly signed by the leaders of the small band of Pilgrims in the cabin of the Mayflower. The covenant agreed, among many other things, to "constitute just and equal laws, that shall be thought most meet for the general good of the colony." From the painting by Edwin White



THE END OF THE MAYFLOWER'S HISTORIC VOYAGE: THE PILGRIMS' SAFE ARRIVAL IN THE NEW WORLD
— From the painting by Charles Lucy



THE FIRST THANKSGIVING OF THE PILGRIM FATHERS ON ARRIVING IN AMERICA

Having survived a particularly stormy passage lasting sixty-three days, the Pilgrim Fathers landed in Massachusetts in November, 1620. Hardly had they set foot on the soil of the New World when a few of them gathered together, gave earnest thanks for safe deliverance from the perils of the sea, and asked a blessing upon their new colony.

From the painting by G. H. Boughton, R. A.

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it was able to send out settlers to other colonies.

Though the first members claimed membership in the Established Church, only a short time elapsed until they became as thorough Separatists as the Plymouth settlers. In 1631 it was provided that none but members of a church in the colony should be freemen, i. e., members of the company and voters. This shut out not only non-church members, but those who accepted doctrines or theories of church government other than the rigid Puritan view. As a result the number of voters was small, for not all could satisfy the examiners of their orthodoxy. Usually an "inhabitant," as distinguished from a "freeman," was not molested if he were quiet. If disorderly or if he attempted to make converts to his theories, he was punished or banished. No mercy was shown to a confessed heretic.

The charter had provided that political power should be vested in the governor, eighteen assistants, and the freemen, that is the ordinary members of the company. The leading men were not democrats and Winthrop and the assistants attempted to legislate for the colony, but there was strong resistance, and in 1632 at the general court, as the assembly of all voters was called, a representative system was established. In 1644 these delegates were formed into a lower house while the assistants became the upper house. This was the first legislative body of two chambers in America. The ideal held by the leading men was a theocratic state.

The Puritan system in Massachusetts Bay, and to a somewhat less extent in other New England colonies was based upon Calvin's "Institutes of the Christian Religion." According to this theory there was a vital relation between church and state. "Neither could survive without the support of the other." Opinion was not free, for anyone who denied the accepted doctrines was a heretic to be dealt with. On the other hand, since a sympathetic government was necessary for the domination of the church in the field of morals, it naturally followed that magistrates were divinely commissioned, and resistance to their authority was re-

Puritan Ideals in Church and State

bellion against God. So the Puritan ideal called for a church and state in entire harmony, working together for the same ends. It cannot be too strongly emphasised that the Puritans had come to the New World to found a commonwealth where their own peculiar ideas should prevail, not a free state.

This ideal led to almost constant difficulties. In 1631, Roger Williams, a brilliant, though erratic young minister, served for a little while the church at Salem. He next lived at Plymouth and there began that intimacy with the Indians which was to be of much service afterward. In August, 1633, he returned to Salem and soon came into conflict with the authorities. He held that only the Indians could give title to the lands and disapproved the union of church and state. He stated further that the state had no jurisdiction over the conscience, and therefore had no right to punish violations of the Sabbath, blasphemy and the like. In a word his teaching led to absolute separation of church and state.

The Puritans had come to the New World to establish a Puritan State, and such doctrine could not pass unnoticed.

Williams was held to account for his strange opinions. After bitter theological discussion he was tried in October, 1635, and sentenced to banishment. His sentence was suspended until Spring, but as he continued to teach, arrangements were made to send him to England. Learning this fact, he made his way southward to the Narragansett Indians. Soon he was joined by some devoted followers and Providence was settled (1635). This was the beginning of the colony of Rhode Island which was soon to receive other settlers from Massachusetts because of the zeal of the authorities of that colony.

The so-called Antinomian controversy is difficult to understand in this century but it was a vital question in the seventeenth. It grew out of the influence of Mrs. Anne Hutchinson, an able woman, who began by holding meetings of women to whom she explained the sermons preached the Sunday before. Soon she began to comment upon them and



OLD NEW ENGLAND DAYS: ON THE WAY TO CHURCH

The Indians were a source of danger during the early years of the Massachusetts Bay Colony, and at some periods the men always carried their arms even to church. Here we see a party trudging through the snow, with all the men except the pastor armed.

then to set forth her own interpretation. Quickly her influence spread and some of the most influential men in the colony became her followers. The orthodox ministers called a synod in 1637 and on eighty-nine points the teaching of Mrs. Hutchinson was declared heterodox. The general court decided in favour of the orthodox views and Mrs. Hutchinson was brought to trial, and upon her own testimony was condemned. She was sentenced to banishment and, in 1638, removed to Rhode Island in Narragansett Bay, where some of her followers founded the town of Portsmouth. Others founded Newport on the southern end of the island the next year. Warwick on the mainland was founded in 1638 by Samuel Gorton, also a refugee from Massachusetts.

To these towns came not only those drawn by conscience but also many restless spirits who could never agree with the established order. Perfect religious liberty was extended even to Catholics, Quakers, Jews and atheists. There was much wrangling among the opposing elements, and the stricter colonies looked upon the little settlements as hotbeds of anarchy. Fearing interference from Massachusetts, Roger Williams went to England in 1643, and the next year succeeded in securing from the parliamentary commission then controlling the plantations a charter combining Provi-

dence, Portsmouth, and Newport under the name Providence Plantations. The Government was organised in 1647 when Warwick was also admitted. Peace had not come to the wrangling settlements. In 1651, William Coddington secured a commission as governor of Rhode Island proper for life, and the two settlements on the mainland and those on the island drew apart, but were reunited in 1654. The charter was confirmed by Cromwell in 1655 and in 1663 a new charter was granted by Charles II. Though revoked by James II, it was restored and served as a constitution until long after the Revolution. One significant phrase of the charter must be quoted: "noe person within the sayd colonye at any tyme hereafter, shall bee anywise molested, punished, disquieted, or called in question for any differences in opiniones in matters of religion."

The rigid rule of the clergy and those who thought with them in Massachusetts was one of the reasons for founding still another colony. The town of Watertown opposed the authority assumed by the governor and his assistants and, probably, from their course in their new home on the banks of the Connecticut, the religious severity of Massachusetts was not to their taste. Before 1635, travellers had brought back stories of the rich lands along the Con-

Rhode Island Settlements

The Planting of Connecticut

necticut River. Therefore in 1635 the congregation at Newtown (Cambridge) under the leadership of their pastor, Thomas Hooker, sold their lands and moved westward. Already straggling settlers from Watertown and Dorchester had gone thither, and others followed. Roxbury too removed and founded Springfield, which later was found to be within the limits of Massachusetts.

It is to be noted that these settlements moved as a body. Nothing could show more clearly the unity of the population. The congregations, that is, whole communities, transferred themselves to a new location, preserving their organisation intact, and settled the three river towns, Hartford, Windsor and Wethersfield. For a year they were governed by commissioners appointed by Massachusetts, which was loath to give up control. In 1637, however, the towns sent delegates to a general court, which assumed full authority. In 1639 the "Fundamental Orders" indicating a form of government were adopted. This instrument is sometimes called the "first constitution in America" but lacks many of the attributes supposed to belong to such a paper. In general it established a form of government similar to that of Massachusetts, but, except for the governor, omitted a religious test, as Plymouth had done. The land was rich, pasturage abundant, and the colony prospered though for a time somewhat disturbed by Indian depredations.

Already, in 1635, a small group of men, who had secured from the Earl of Warwick the conveyance of any rights he may have had to the lands west of Narragansett Bay, had sent John Winthrop, Jr., to build a fort at the mouth of the Connecticut. The settlement was called Saybrook. Few settlers came but the position at the mouth of the river prevented further Dutch settlements along its length, and was therefore important. In 1644 the title was transferred to the River Towns by the patentees and the influence of these settlements was thereby much enlarged.

The colony, by this time called Connecticut, absorbed in time a third colony which was planted within the present limits of Connecticut. Theophilus Eaton,

a wealthy London merchant, and a strict Puritan, together with Reverend John Davenport, had been in sympathy with the settlement of the Massachusetts colony. They determined to found in America a scriptural commonwealth. With a small band they crossed the ocean and after remaining a short while in Boston, went into Long Island Sound (March, 1638) and founded New Haven. This was to be a stricter Puritan State than any which had preceded it in America. Only church members could be citizens. Rejecting by resolution all English law, they determined "that the word of God shall be the only rule to be attended unto in ordering the affairs of government in this plantation." Soon Guilford and Milford were settled (1639) and soon after Stamford, further to the west, and Southold across the Sound, on Long Island. These later towns were at first independent, and did not display quite the same aggressive Puritanism as New Haven but in 1643 all united themselves into one colony in which the stricter rules of New Haven were to apply.

For twenty years the history of the New Haven colony was uneventful. With the restoration of the Stuarts in England disaster was feared. The colony had no charter and the Stuarts could not be expected to look with favour upon such a Puritan stronghold as New Haven. Meanwhile, in 1661, Connecticut had sent John Winthrop, Jr., to England to procure a charter. He was surprisingly successful. A charter so liberal that it served the colony as a constitution until after the

The Union of the Connecticut Settlements Revolution, was secured in 1662. The new boundaries extended through the continent to the "South Seas" and therefore New Haven was included. The Connecticut colony made some attempts to include that reluctant colony by compulsion. The logic of the situation was so evident, and it was obviously so much better to be incorporated with Connecticut than to fall into the hands of the Duke of York, soon to take possession of New Netherland, that in 1665, the New Haven colony became a part of Connecticut. Except for occasional disputes with the Dutch governors of New York and with Massachusetts, always



AN EARLY RELIGIOUS SERVICE OF THE PURITANS AFTER SETTLING IN THEIR NEW HOME

To these English colonists in America, who settled in New England, religious worship was important. When they left England and escaped the persecutions to which they were subjected, it was with a peculiar sense of gratification that they found themselves able to worship God in the manner approved of by conscience. The above picture shows an early religious service of the Pilgrim Fathers in their new home.

From the painting by George Schwartz

arbitrary, and some serious Indian wars, life in the united colonies flowed on peacefully and prosperously until the complaints against Massachusetts laid before the Board of Trades and Plantations led the Royal authority to attempt to bring all the Puritan colonies under stricter control.

Meanwhile to the north of Massachusetts we find attempts to found other colonies. Sir Ferdinando Gorges has already been mentioned as interested in colonisation, as shown by his membership in the Plymouth company which made the unsuccessful attempt to plant a colony on the Kennebec in 1607. When

**Maine
and
New Hampshire**

the Plymouth company was succeeded by the New England Council in 1620, he was a charter member, and secured from it many and large grants of land. In 1622 to him and John Mason was granted the land between the Merrimac and Kennebec Rivers and extending sixty miles inland. In 1629 that part of this territory lying between the Merrimac and the Piscataqua, out of which grew New Hampshire, was conveyed to Mason individually, the remainder, which became Maine, falling to Gorges. In 1635 when the New England Council went out of existence, these grants were confirmed. Later (1639) Gorges was made Lord Proprietor of the Province of Maine with great powers. Many overlapping grants were made in this territory and it is difficult to disentangle them. Several small settlements grew up in New Hampshire, some by the aid of proprietors, but others by settlers from Massachusetts. The interests of the Mason family centred about Strawberry Bank (Portsmouth), but after the death of John Mason (1635), little attempt to maintain authority was made. The little settlements were isolated and without legislature or governor.

This was the opportunity of Massachusetts. The charter of that colony fixed the northern boundary as "three miles north of the Merrimac or any part thereof." At the date of the charter the river was supposed to run east and west. When the northern source was discovered, Massachusetts, without legal justification, declared that a line drawn from

this source to the east was the northern boundary of the province, and on this ground laid claim to authority over the settlements not only in New Hampshire

**The New
Hampshire
Towns Annexed**

but over Maine as far north as Casco Bay. This authority was first asserted over the New Hampshire towns in 1641 when Dover was annexed, and in 1643 Exeter was included, but Portsmouth (Strawberry Bank) was not recognised as a town until more than ten years afterwards. In Hampton, which was always claimed as a part of Massachusetts, Dover and Exeter, the Puritan influence was strong, and these towns were content under Massachusetts government. The Anglican element in Portsmouth made it restive.

Massachusetts continued to assert jurisdiction over these towns until 1679, when the Mason heirs succeeded in having their territorial claims recognised. The settlements were separated from Massachusetts as the royal province of New Hampshire. When the charter of Massachusetts was vacated in 1684, and a union of the New England colonies was planned, New Hampshire became a part of the government, and so continued until after the deposition of James II. For two years it was controlled by a new proprietor, Samuel Allen, but in 1691 was recognised as a royal province to be ruled by a deputy of the governor in Boston.

The history of Maine differs in some details though the main facts are similar. As has been mentioned, the territory between the Merrimac and the

**The
Settlement
of Maine**

Kennebec was granted to Gorges and Mason jointly in 1622 and was to be called Maine. In 1629, that part of the territory between the Merrimac and the Piscataqua was granted to Mason individually and by him called New Hampshire. The remainder fell to Gorges, and for it he secured a royal charter, as the Province of Maine.

His son Thomas was sent out as governor, and attempted to govern the towns which had already sprung up along the shore to engage in the fishing or the fur trade. Gorgeana, now York, was to be the capital. After the death

THE NEW ENGLAND COLONIES

of the proprietor, in 1647, the province was neglected. Confusion increased, and in 1652 Massachusetts asserted her claim to jurisdiction, according to the somewhat strained interpretation of her charter already mentioned in the case of New Hampshire. Some of the towns gladly submitted at once, but not until 1658 was the process complete. The royal commission in 1665 separated Maine, but in 1668 Massachusetts calmly took over the government again. As the Gorges heirs threatened to make trouble, Massachusetts in 1677 purchased their claims and ruled as proprietor, very much to the disgust of Charles II.

This completes the list of the New England colonies, for Vermont, which had been explored and claimed by the French, who were already creeping down by way of Lake Champlain, did not receive English settlers until the eighteenth century. Then the conflicting claims of Massachusetts, New Hampshire and New York were to be settled, but that story belongs to another chapter.

The boundaries of the different grants under the various charters and patents issued in New England were often contradictory, and disputes were frequent.

The Dutch had the claim of prior settlement on the Connecticut River, and some of the Indians were inclined to be hostile. Therefore very early we find those of the colonies in which there was some similarity of religious belief groping for some sort of co-operation. This resulted, finally, in the organisation of the United Colonies of New England, better known as the New England Confederation.

Connecticut seems to have introduced the subject in 1637, but Plymouth was not represented at the meeting and nothing was done. The next year Massachusetts made a similar suggestion, but again nothing was done. Finally in 1642 the time was seen to be ripe, and the next year the organisation was formed with Massachusetts, Plymouth, Connecticut and New Haven as the members. The purpose was offense and defense against Indians and Dutchmen, since the disturbed state of England prevented

calling for help in that quarter. No other colony should be admitted without consent of all and Rhode Island's applications were ignored or rejected in consequence, and Maine likewise was not admitted. No two colonies might unite without consent of the others, but on the other hand their territory was guaranteed against invasion. In case of war Massachusetts was to furnish one hundred men for every forty-five sent by each of the other colonies. On the other hand, though her population was considerably greater than that of all the others combined, each colony was represented by two commissioners and so had an equal vote in the management.

The action of the confederation reveals much of the condition of the times. The commissioners were interested in

The Work of the Commissioners building up Harvard College, and they recommended missionary work among the Indians. At the

same time they kept a close watch upon the southern Indian tribes and favoured the Mohegans in their struggles with the Narragansetts. They opposed efforts to introduce Presbyterianism into New England and advised the persecution of Quakers. They vigorously combated the Dutch claims to all territory west of the Connecticut River, and because they were stronger gained their point.

The Quaker persecution was especially bitter in Massachusetts, though Plymouth and New Haven also took strong measures. Connecticut was more lenient. In Massachusetts every effort was made to keep the sect out of the colony, but to no avail. In the face of imprisonment, whipping, branding, and mutilation, they came in increasing numbers; and, when banished, returned to tes-

Persecution of Quakers in New England tify. Persecution only increased their zeal. In

1659 two men were hanged in Boston when they returned after being banished. The next year, a woman, Mary Dyer, met the same fate. In 1661 a fourth Quaker was hanged, but with this exhibition public sentiment revolted. Afterward Quakers were fined, imprisoned and whipped at the cart's tail from town to town, but capital punishment was no longer inflicted. In Rhode

Island the despised sect was not disturbed, a fact which increased the dislike of the Puritan colonies for that association of heretics and wranglers. Where such were admitted there was an end of the theocratic state.

The accession of Charles II brought several changes to New England. That monarch was determined to reduce the presumption of the more aggressive Puritan colonies. Massachusetts which had been especially obstinate was ordered to allow all freeholders to vote and to hold office and to allow the Church of England services to be held, but, as usual, evaded the issue. New Haven, which had sheltered Edward Whalley and William Goffe, two of the judges who had condemned Charles I, lost its separate existence and was combined with Connecticut to which a liberal charter was granted. To Rhode Island was

The Downfall of the Puritan Power

granted an even more liberal instrument. Plymouth was ignored. The commissioners who accompanied the fleet which took possession of New Netherland spent some time in Boston, but gained little satisfaction from the officers of the colony. The war with the Dutch prevented vigorous action for the time, but the downfall of the Puritan oligarchy was only delayed, not prevented.

On the whole the relations of the New England colonies with the Indians were not hostile. Reverend John Eliot, the "apostle of the Indians," gathered the "praying Indians" into villages and translated the Bible into the Indian dialect spoken in Massachusetts. He, with other ministers, believed that the Indians were descended from the lost tribes of Israel and spent himself in the attempt to turn them from their idolatry. His converts, however, were from the weaker tribes. The stronger held aloof.

Massasoit, chief of the Pokanokets, or Wampanoags, was a friend of the English until his death in 1660, but his son, who was baptised Philip, showed another spirit, and began to conspire against the

whites. In 1674, the smouldering discontent flamed into action, and other tribes joined. The contest was desperate. Dozens of towns were destroyed, wholly or partly, and

many atrocities were committed during the next two years. In 1676 Philip was slain by an Indian, friendly to the whites, but it was not until 1678 that the war was really over. The whites had suffered terribly in destruction of life and property, but the power of the Indians was destroyed completely. They were never again able to threaten the existence of New England.

While the colonies were recovering from their stubborn contest, Charles II again turned his attention to New England, and in 1684 the charter of Massachusetts was revoked. The policy of increasing the royal control was continued under James II, and in 1686 Sir Edmund Andros was sent over to govern Massachusetts, Plymouth, New Hampshire and Maine. The charters of Rhode Island and Connecticut were declared revoked and they were joined under the "Dominion of New England." In 1688 New York and the Jerseys were also placed under the rule of Andros whose jurisdiction now extended from the Delaware to New France.

Andros was arbitrary and had little patience with the government which had prevailed in New England. Laws were disregarded and he forced by executive order many regulations to which the people were opposed. Worship according to the Church of England was ordered to be held, and in Boston one of the Congregational Churches was taken for that purpose. Land titles were questioned, arbitrary taxes were collected, and to the old regime it seemed that the end of the world had come.

It was with joy, that news of the flight of James II and of the landing of William of Orange was received by the people of Massachusetts in April, 1689. Andros was deposed and imprisoned, and government under the charter was resumed. The same policy was pursued by the other New England colonies. As Plymouth had no charter the old officers were called to resume their places. Andros and his leading officers and advisers were sent to England for trial, and New England awaited the action of the new king, hoping that their cherished institutions would be undisturbed under the new monarchs.

The Rule of Andros

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The King Philip's War



A VIEW OF NEW AMSTERDAM IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY

THE MIDDLE COLONIES

THE DUTCH AND THE QUAKER COLONIES AND THEIR MEANING

IN 1609, Spain was forced to acknowledge the practical independence of the northern provinces of the Netherlands. This year, as we have mentioned, also saw the voyage, under the Dutch flag, of the Englishman, Henry Hudson, during which he entered the Delaware River, and sailed up the river which now bears his name, as far as the present site of Albany. The Dutch, or rather the dominant party in the Netherlands, were slow to become excited over the possibilities of American colonisation, and made little attempt to gain a foothold on the continent. It is probable that fur-traders built huts on Manhattan Island in 1613, and the next year a monopoly of the fur trade was given, for a limited time, to a company of Dutch merchants. This date is, therefore, sometimes given as the beginning of what is now New York.

The party which favoured expansion and colonisation gained the upper hand in the Netherlands, and, in 1621, the

**The Dutch
West India
Company Chartered**

Dutch West India Company was chartered with almost imperial powers. Its purpose was to trade in America and Africa, and in the process to injure and worry the Spaniards as far as possible. Colonisation was, on the whole, only incidental, and we shall find the colony of New Netherland which was founded, much neglected in future years.

The first permanent settlers arrived in 1623. Some landed on Manhattan Island to found New Amsterdam, while others

proceeded up the river to Fort Nassau, already built, moved the fort to the present site of Albany, and renamed it Fort Orange. Another Fort Nassau was soon built on the South (Delaware) River, opposite the present city of Philadelphia. Soon the Fresh (Connecticut) River was explored, and Fort Good Hope was begun on the present site of Hart-

**The Beginning
of the City of
New York** ford. Settlements were also made on Long Island, the first where the Brooklyn Navy Yard now stands.

Though the Dutch had asserted their claim over the large territory between the Connecticut and the Delaware Rivers, they had not surplus population to fill it, and settlers came slowly. The Indians were not troublesome in the beginning, and the first governor, Peter Minuit, temporarily gained their good-will by paying them for Manhattan Island assorted trinkets to the amount of twenty-four dollars, a sum equal, perhaps, to one hundred and twenty dollars at the present value of money.

The colony grew very slowly. In 1629, six years after the West India Company had sent the first ship, there were hardly 300 persons in residence, and these were chiefly engaged in the fur trade. The great profits in this traffic prevented the real development of the colony. Evidently farmers were needed and the company determined to get them in groups, instead of singly. So in 1629, the "Charter of Privileges and Exemptions" was issued. It provided that any man who

would within four years bring out fifty persons above the age of fifteen years, and settle them on farms, might select a tract of land fronting sixteen miles on one side of a navigable stream, or eight miles on both sides and extending as far into the interior as convenient. The title of this feudal lord was "Patroon," and several of these grants were made along the Delaware and the Hudson. Extensive rights of government were granted and the monopoly of hunting, fishing and grinding. The patroons were to furnish their tenants with land, houses, stock and tools, and in return were to receive rent, usually payable in produce. They were forbidden to engage in the fur trade, except where the Company had no post, or to allow the manufacture of cloth upon their estates. They might trade along the coast with whomever they pleased, but on all goods received must pay a duty of five per cent. The tenants on the other hand were exempted from taxation for ten years, but during that time were forbidden to leave their farms. The intent obviously was to develop farmers, not traders or artisans.

Some great estates were created, of which the most important was Rensselaerwyck, which comprised the greater part of what are now Albany and Rensselaer counties. The experiment was not altogether successful, as the patroons began to engage in the fur trade, which the company reserved for itself.

Other tracts were granted, without feudal obligations to those who would improve them, and after 1640 the grants were usually small, but the rights of the few great patroons were not disturbed. Later these were succeeded by English manors, and their influence persisted into the nineteenth century.

The first governor, Peter Minuit, was succeeded, in 1632, by Wouter van Twiller, who, it is supposed, owed his appointment to the influence of the great patroon, Kiliaen van Rensselaer. He, and the other Dutch governors as well, have been immortalised by the witty pen of Washington Irving. While the picture presented in the "Knickerbocker History of New York" is a caricature,

of course, all we can learn of him seems to show that it was a caricature only and not a libel. He was slow, stupid, hard to move, and not at all suited to direct a frontier settlement. His rule was disturbed by the encroachment of the New Englanders on the Connecticut, mentioned in a previous chapter, and by the Virginians, who threatened the settlements on the Delaware. The home governments could not afford to quarrel, and Van Twiller was not allowed to use force against the aggressors, but was compelled to see the Dutch claim reduced by English settlements. Meanwhile the colony continued to give more attention to trading with the Indians than to agriculture. Trading for furs was immediately profitable, but such traffic did not strengthen the colony. For this Van Twiller was blamed by the Dutch Government, and the West India Company replaced him by William Kieft in 1637.

More liberal concessions were made to settlers the next year, and the monopoly of the fur trade, and the prohibition of manufactures were given up. Advances were offered to prospective farmers, and settlers of a better quality began to come in considerable numbers from Holland. Many New Englanders who found a theocratic atmosphere oppressive also sought homes under the Dutch flag. Kieft, however, was arbitrary, irritable and tactless. The population, both white and Indian, became restless under his autocratic rule, for there was no provision for popular representation until late in his administration. His tactlessness provoked an Indian uprising which threatened the existence of the colony. The Indians were disastrously defeated by a force under the same Captain John Underhill, who had led the New Englanders against the Pequots, and the discontent of the whites secured the recall of Kieft.

His successor, Peter Stuyvesant, an old soldier and colonial official who had lost a leg in the service of his country, arrived in 1647. He was frank and generous, but a severe disciplinarian, and somewhat irascible. He looked with

The English Encroach on Dutch Territory

The System of Patroonship Breaks Down

Indian Troubles Provoked by the Tactless Governor



The Battery, at the very tip of Manhattan Island, has always been a favourite meeting-place. This is an artist's idea of the way it looked during the days when the Dutch held New York before the English came.

little favour upon popular interference in government, and attempted to carry out his instructions to the letter. He was; however, forced to establish the board of "Nine Men," a form of council well known in the Netherlands. The people elected eighteen, out of which Stuyvesant chose nine. The retiring members were to nominate twice as many men as there were vacancies and from these Stuyvesant selected the proper number. In spite of the scheme, which was calculated to increase the influence of the Director General as time went on, the Nine Men were not always ready to obey his commands, and even ventured to ask the Dutch Government to take the control of the colony from the Company. The States General declined to take over the colony, but forced the Company to deprive Stuyvesant of some of his arbitrary powers over the people.

During the first years of New Netherland, the only church recognised was the Dutch Reformed. But very early, New Amsterdam began to show that cosmopolitan character so marked to-day. Men of a dozen different nationalities came, and soon they demanded the right to worship in their own way. Stuyvesant jealously attempted to carry out what he

considered to be the wishes of the West India Company. He threatened, fined and imprisoned those who opposed his policy, and went so far as to have Baptists and Quakers banished or cruelly whipped. The citizens were not in sympathy with his course, and complaint to the Company brought an order to tolerate all "so long as they continue moderate, peaceable, inoffensive, and not hostile to government."

Stuyvesant saw with anger the growing encroachment of the English upon the territory west of the Connecticut River, and upon Long Island, all of which was claimed by the Dutch, but he was not allowed to resist by force. At that time European politics forbade any break between two important Protestant powers. Events in Europe allowed him to crush a weaker opponent, however. This was the Swedish settlement on the Delaware, founded in territory claimed by the Dutch.

Peter Minuit had felt himself injured by his recall from the government of New Netherland, and soon took service with Sweden. Gustavus Adolphus had dreamed of a colonial empire in America, and had proposed the organisation of a trading com-

**The End of
Religious
Persecutions**

**Swedes Attempt
to Found
a Colony**

pany in 1624, just as the Dutch West India Company was beginning to settle New Netherland. The Thirty Years' War then raging prevented active operations until 1638, after the death of the king. Then the great chancellor, Oxenstjerna, acting for the baby queen, Christina, sent Peter Minuit to Delaware Bay. Land was bought from the Indians around the present site of Wilmington, and Fort Christina was built. The territory was called New Sweden, and settlers came in considerable numbers.

Kieft had protested, and the English in Virginia and Maryland were none too friendly, but the services of the Swedes in the Thirty Years' War were too valuable for the governments of England and the Netherlands to risk a clash. Just below the present site of Philadelphia, two other forts were built, which commanded the river and controlled the approach to Fort Nassau, which the Dutch had built higher up the river. After the close of the Thirty Years' War, when Sweden was engaged in her desperate war with Poland, the Dutch government felt free to act. With a considerable force, Stuyvesant sailed into the Delaware Bay in 1655, and compelled the weak settlement to yield. The colonists themselves were not molested, but the Dutch flag was raised over their forts. So ended Sweden's attempt to gain a foothold in America.

Meanwhile the English were encroaching still further upon the mainland along Long Island Sound and upon Long Island itself. Stuyvesant, driven by the necessity of the case, made a treaty with the Connecticut men practically giving up the Dutch claim to New England and to most of Long Island as well, but the very existence of New Netherland was injurious to the English trade. Though the Navigation Act forbade a Dutch ship to carry goods to an English colony, such ships carried goods to New Amsterdam, where they were easily exchanged for the products of the English colonies. Cromwell planned to take the Dutch colony, but peace was made with the Netherlands (1654), just as the force of volunteers from New England was about to strike.

The end of Dutch dominion was approaching, however. When Charles II granted the charter to Connecticut in 1662, the Pacific was made the western boundary, and the Dutch claim was entirely ignored. Two years later, all the land from the Connecticut River to the Delaware, including also Long Island, was granted to the king's brother, the Duke of York, later James II. To be sure a part of this territory had already been granted to Connecticut, but the Stuart kings were not restrained by such considerations, as the many duplicate grants issued by them will show.

Since the grant had been made, the next thing was to take possession. So a fleet of four ships with 500 soldiers was sent out under Sir Richard Nicolls, who had a commission to govern the territory to be seized. The fleet sailed first for Boston, and remained there a month, discussing one of the objects of the expedition, *viz.*, bringing the New England colonies into closer relations to the Crown. Massachusetts refused to furnish volunteers for the capture of

New Amsterdam, but Connecticut was more obliging, and in August the ships, with perhaps a thousand men, appeared before New Amsterdam. Stuyvesant had heard rumours of the proposed attack, but had been reassured by the delay in Boston, and had allowed some Dutch war ships in the harbour to depart. Resistance would have been useless if the population had been of one mind. It was, however, divided. The people of the town were disgusted with the selfish policy of the Company, and also were tired of the arbitrary rule of Stuyvesant, whom they charged with using his official position for personal gain. No resistance was made, and the Dutch flag came down Sept. 8, 1664.

New Amsterdam became New York, and Fort Orange became Fort Albany. Nicolls was a wise and just man, with attractive manners, and the change of government was accomplished with little friction. Some degree of self-government was granted in local matters, but otherwise the government was a benevolent despotism. During the four years of Nicolls' government, there was little trouble, however, and under his succes-

**The English
Capture New
Amsterdam**

**Stuyvesant Com-
promises with
the English**



CANAL STREET, NEW YORK, IN EARLY DAYS

This view represents Canal Street, New York, as it probably appeared in the days before the Dutch occupation had become merely a memory. The canal of course has long since been covered up, and the street now is one of the busiest in the city.



SUNNYSIDE, WASHINGTON IRVING'S HOME, NEAR TARRYTOWN

Washington Irving with rich humour wrote much of the early history of New Amsterdam and New York. While much that he wrote was exaggerated, the picture he drew will always be interesting, and really included considerable truth.

sor, Francis Lovelace, everything went smoothly for a time. The cry of "no taxation without representation" was heard now and then, particularly on Long Island, where many New Englanders were settled, but there was no active opposition to English rule. Lovelace deserves to be remembered for the establishment of the first mail route in America, over which a monthly round trip between New York and Boston was made. The first postman left New York on New Year's Day, 1673.

Meanwhile, Charles II had joined with Louis XIV of France to attack the Netherlands. As a result, a Dutch fleet dropped anchor in New York Bay, and August 9, 1673, the Dutch flag was again hoisted over the fort. Dutch claims were again asserted to the coast from

The Dutch Recapture their Colony

the Connecticut to the Delaware and to Long Island also. The period of Dutch occupation was short, however, for early in 1674 peace was made between England and the Netherlands, and all conquests were restored. So New York came back to the English. As the conquest had nullified the grant to the Duke of York, Charles II granted again to his brother the whole territory from the Connecticut to the Delaware, disregarding both the Connecticut charter, and the compromise of Stuyvesant with the Connecticut colony already mentioned, and also the Duke of York's former grant of New Jersey, of which we shall now speak.

The state which we call New Jersey was a part of the territory claimed by the Dutch West India Company. Straggling settlements grew up along the river, and crept a little way back into the interior, in the early years of the Company's rule. The patroonship of Pavonia was laid out opposite Manhattan Island, and in the south on the Delaware there were Swedish farms. Here Stuyvesant had built a fort to hold the Swedes in check. A few settlers of English blood also were to be found, and Governor Nicolls was preparing to send others, when he learned that the Duke of York had given the territory between the Hudson and the Delaware to two of his friends. These were John, Lord Berkeley, and Sir George Carteret, both of whom also

appear among the Lords Proprietors of Carolina.

Carteret had bravely defended the island of Jersey against Parliament, and the name of Nova Cæsarea, the Latin form of the name of the Channel Isle, was given to the new province. The people, however, preferred the English form by which it is known to-day. Philip Carteret, a nephew of the Proprietor, was sent out as governor in 1665, and settlement was rather rapid. Some came from England, and some from Scotland. In 1668 an assembly was held. Berkeley soon sold his undivided half interest to a party of Quakers. With the capture of New Amsterdam by the Dutch, the province of New Jersey again came under Dutch rule. With the English re-occupation the Duke of York, in confirmation of his previous action, granted the larger part of the province, under the name of East Jersey, to Sir George Carteret. The Quakers apparently made no attempt to secure from the Duke of York the confirmation of their purchase from Berkeley.

From the beginning, the Proprietors of New Jersey claimed rights of government, and the history of the controversy

Peculiar Features of New Jersey History

presents some interesting features. It was a settled principle of English law, that only the sovereign can delegate governmental rights, and the Duke of York was not yet king. Therefore, he could not lawfully grant rights of government, though under the charter issued to him by his royal brother, he might exercise them himself. From this fact grew constant disputes with Governor Andros of New York, to which colony we shall now return.

When New York was restored to the English flag, Edmund Andros, a soldier in Prince Rupert's regiment, was sent over as governor. Later he came into prominence because of the contest with Massachusetts where he was vigorously hated, but in New York he was on the whole successful. This colony had been accustomed to arbitrary rule,

Andros Governor of New York

and popular representation was not a fundamental political principle. Andros was honest, just, and a good administrator.

THE MIDDLE COLONIES

His unpopularity arose because he was loyal to his instructions. It was his business to administer the affairs of the colony for the benefit of the Duke of York, not for the benefit of the people of the colony.

One of his instructions required that any ship, trading with any part of the original grant to the Duke of York, must touch at New York and pay duties there. The attempt to enforce this regulation led to constant quarrels with the Jerseys, particularly with the larger and more populous East Jersey. On one occasion Andros went so far as to arrest his friend, Philip Carteret of East Jersey, who was tried in New York, and, much to Andros' disgust, acquitted. The Carteret influence appealed to Charles II, and the matter was submitted to the law officers of the Crown for their opinion.

In 1680, the Attorney-General, with an imperfect statement of the facts before him, decided in favour of the right of the proprietors of the Jerseys to exercise powers of government.

Soon after (1682), William Penn and others, on the death of Sir George Carteret, bought his rights in East Jersey. So both the Jerseys came under Quaker influence, though many other sects were represented in the population. Liberal government prevailed. Religious toleration and popular assemblies were both guaranteed, as well as trial by jury. Though there were many petty disputes with the proprietors, the history of the Jerseys is not exciting. Soon, however, the provinces were to be combined, and become a part of a larger jurisdiction.

Complaints charging Governor Andros with exceeding his powers in arresting Carteret, and extending authority over New Jersey, were carried to England, and it was also suggested that he showed too much favour to the Dutch. Early in 1682, we find him in England attempting to justify his conduct. He was partially successful, but another governor, Thomas Dongan, was sent to New York, who was forbidden to meddle with the Jerseys, and was also ordered to call a legislative assembly. The first meeting of this body was held October 17, 1683. A charter was drawn up for the approval of the Duke of York and the King, but

before it was signed Charles II had died, and the Duke of York succeeded him as James II. New York, therefore, became a royal province.

Meanwhile the war between the French and English in America was evidently imminent. Charles II had felt that colonial union was necessary in order to present a united front against the French in Canada, and this policy was continued by his successor. Here it may be said that the constant friendship between the Five Nations and New York had been the strongest bulwark against invasion from the north. The French could not gain the good will of these haughty warriors, and they were even strong enough to threaten Montreal. So, as we have already mentioned, the charter of Massachusetts was revoked. Plymouth, which never had a charter, was joined with it, together with New Hampshire and Maine, and in 1686, Sir Edmund Andros was again sent to America to govern for James. With him were sixty British regulars, the first "red-coats" seen in New England. The charters of Connecticut and Rhode Island were demanded, and the Dominion of New England came into being. In 1688, New York and the Jerseys were added, and a lieutenant-governor of the Dominion, Francis Nicholson, was appointed, with headquarters at New York. Andros, as has already been told, resided at Boston.

Only a few months later came the news of the landing of William of Orange in England, and of the flight of

Leisler's Rebellion and its Consequences

James II. Some Catholics had held office in New York, including Governor Dongan, and loose talk of a "Popish Plot" to turn the colony over to Louis XIV, of France, was current. In the excitement, a wealthy but uneducated German-born citizen, Jacob Leisler by name, put himself at the head of the militia, drove out Governor Nicholson, assumed the government, and proclaimed William of Orange. The necessity of levying taxes alienated some of his supporters, and his arbitrary course lost the sympathy of others. Indian troubles added to the complications. The richer, conservative

The Jerseys Under Quaker Control

The Five Nations and the English

part of the population was against him from the beginning. His attempt to call an assembly was only partially successful, as several of the counties refused to elect representatives.

One of Leisler's acts, however, is remembered. Just after the destruction of Schenectady, by the Indians, February 8, 1690, he called a Colonial Congress to concert measures against the French in Canada, and their Indian allies. Massachusetts, Plymouth, Connecticut and Maryland sent delegates who met in New York, May, 1690. This was the first of these colonial gatherings, which finally ended in the Continental Congresses and the Revolution. The resulting expedition, under Sir William Phipps, of Massachusetts, and Fitz John Winthrop, of Connecticut, failed when it met the strategy of Frontenac, — but representatives of the colonists had met and discussed their common dangers.

Meanwhile dangers and discouragements continued to press upon Leisler's obstinate head, but his faith in himself as a representative of democracy, and of Protestantism became a monomania. He felt that if William of Orange could know of his services, he would receive high honour. Accordingly he sent a representative to England, whom William refused to receive, and when that monarch had reduced his new kingdom to order, he sent Henry Slough-ter to be governor of the province of New York. Leisler was not even named as one of the council, an omission which his tortured brain was not able to understand. The troops which were sent to support the governor's authority arrived early in 1691, before the governor himself, and Leisler refused to allow them to take possession of the fort. A clash occurred and two of the soldiers were killed. On Slough-ter's arrival, Leisler willingly surrendered his authority, was thrown into prison, tried for treason, together with several of his associates, and convicted. Leisler and his brother-in-law, Jacob Milborne, were executed before confirmation of their sentence could arrive from England. The story goes that some of the conservative party, who had felt Leisler's heavy hand, persuaded Slough-ter to sign the death warrant

while intoxicated. Certainly they brought heavy pressure to bear upon the new governor, and his act added to the difficulties and perplexities of his successors.

Since these middle colonies are best treated as a group, let us now turn back a few years to the circumstances which surrounded the founding of another of the group. William Penn has already been mentioned as one of the Proprietors of the Jerseys. We shall now see him as sole Proprietor of what was destined to be a new idea in colonisation.

This unusual man was a son of Admiral Penn, a faithful servant of the Stuarts, who gave to his son great social advantages and every opportunity of education. The young man, however, came under Quaker influences and was forced to leave Oxford University after two years. He was then sent to Paris with some gay companions, with the hope that he would forget his strange ideas, but his views did not change. We hear of some further study under Huguenot influences, of travel in Italy, and of the study of the law at Lincoln's Inn in London. His father's patience became exhausted, and for a time he was sent away from home. The sturdy old sailor could not understand why his son insisted on association with what seemed to the seventeenth century conservative, a band of fanatics and anarchists, whose doctrines struck at the very foundations of society. A faith which proclaimed the equality of all men, and therefore refused to remove the hat before rulers or magistrates, which taught that by the presence of the "inner light" every man could make his peace with God without the intervention of the church, was incomprehensible to the conservatives of that day.

Young Penn was later reconciled to his father, however, and when the admiral died, he commended his son to the care of the Stuarts, who responded to the appeal and always regarded him with regard and even affection. His personality was attractive, and in his missionary journeys through Europe, he seems to have attracted some personages of high rank, and to have gained their good will. He continued to preach, and was some-

Leisler's Enem-ies Secure His Death

THE MIDDLE COLONIES

times thrown into prison for his disregard of the laws forbidding unauthorised assemblies. His experience with the Jerseys had given him some knowledge of American conditions, and the scheme of establishing a commonwealth, with complete religious liberty, grew up in his mind.

There is an old story that the Crown owed his father £16,000, equivalent to a much greater sum to-day, and that the province was granted in lieu of the debt. At any rate, the charter was issued March 14, 1681.

**Pennsylvania
Given to Satisfy
a Debt**

The territory granted lay between 40° and 43°, and extended five degrees westward from the Delaware River, which was made the eastern boundary. Later Penn was able to have this boundary shifted twenty miles southward, at the expense of Maryland, but on the other hand, the northern boundary was finally fixed at the forty-second instead of the forty-third parallel. At the southeast corner, the territory lying within a circle with a radius of twelve miles, with New-castle as a centre, was not granted to Penn, but was reserved by the Duke of York.

The charter followed the general lines of that of Maryland, but the English officials had learned in fifty years that subjects of the crown might be made too independent. Therefore, it was provided that laws passed by the colonial assembly should be sent to England for approval, and the right of England to levy taxes in the colony was expressly reserved. It was also provided that an agent must be kept in England. In these important particulars, Pennsylvania, as the King named the province, was less free than Maryland, and the authority of Penn was measurably less than that of the Calverts.

The boundaries of the province con-

flicted with the Maryland grant, but Penn's influence was great enough to enable him to secure the advantage in the disputes, and also to obtain from James grants of the country settled by Sweden, and captured by the Dutch, known first as the "lower counties on the Delaware" and later to grow into the province of that name. This province of Delaware was taken directly from the Maryland grant.

**Penn's Ideas
on Government
Liberal**

The schemes of government, which Penn drew up, were liberal for that day, or for any day. These "Frames of Government" reserved little authority for the Proprietor.



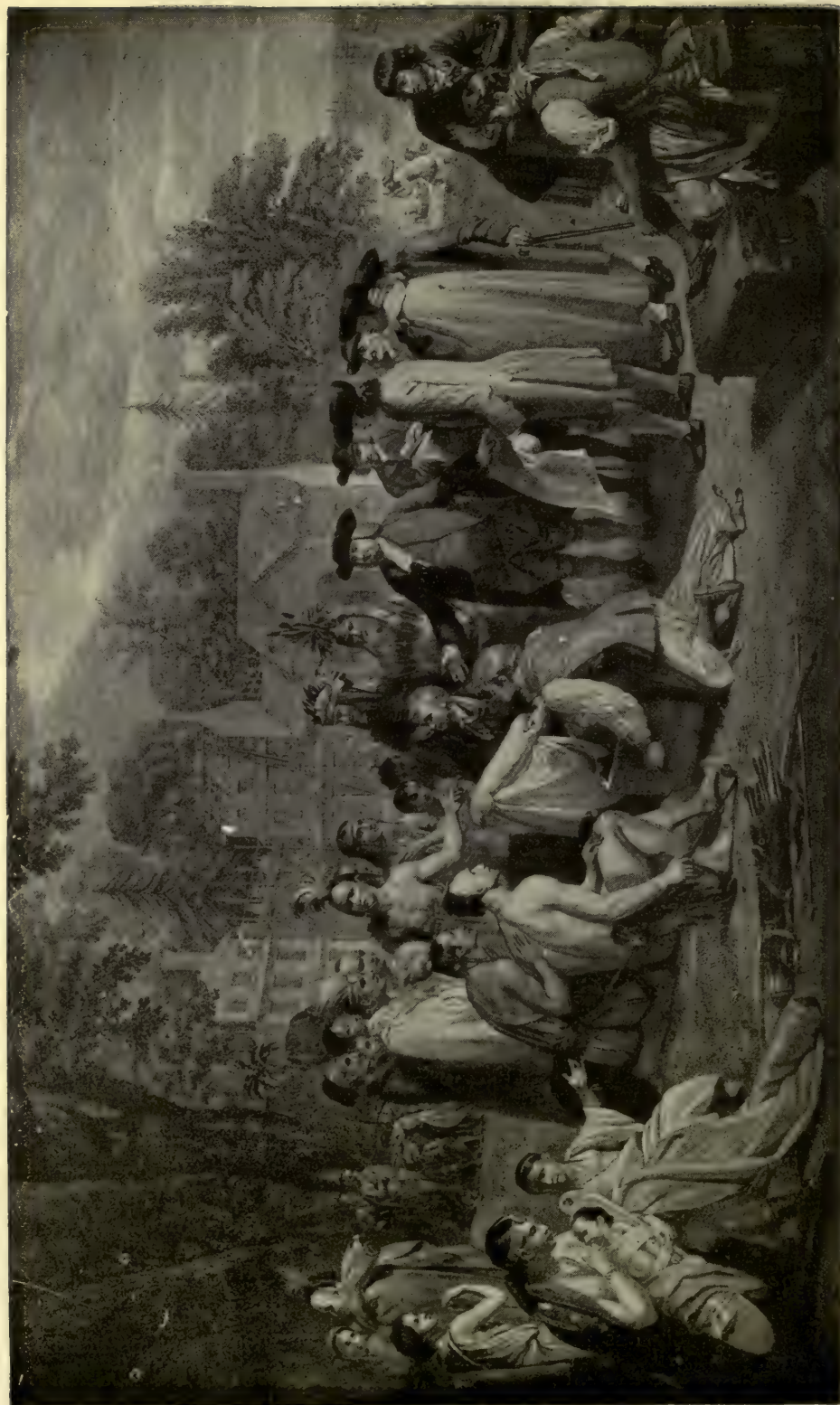
WILLIAM PENN

Son of an English admiral. The persecution of the Quakers induced him to acquire the province of Pennsylvania as a refuge for his co-religionists, though all other creeds were gladly welcomed.

Both council and assembly were to be elective, courts were always to be open, fees should be moderate, prison reform was approved, and only two crimes were punishable by death. Absolute freedom of conscience was guaranteed. Penn wrote to colonists already settled in the territory granted to him: "... you shall be governed by laws of your own making, and live a free, and, if you will, a sober and industrious people. I shall not usurp the right of any, or oppress his person."

It is not surprising that such promises, guaranteed as they were by Penn's reputation and prominence, found an answer in England, and later on the continent. The theory of colonisation thus announced was in direct opposition to the general practice of the day, particularly on the continent. The idea that colonists had any rights was strange to European ears.

During the first year, it is estimated that 3000 sailed for Pennsylvania. Penn himself was delayed more than a year after the first party of settlers had reached their destination. On his arrival, an assembly was held at Chester, previously called Upland, and passed the "Great Law of Pennsylvania." Soon after Philadelphia, the "City of Broth-



INTERVIEW BETWEEN THE ENGLISH AND THE NATIVES: WILLIAM PENN IN TREATY WITH THE INDIANS

This famous picture is intended to represent William Penn making a treaty with the Indians. Penn made many treaties with them and the particular one can not be identified, though it might represent a treaty made at Shackamaxon in 1683. The relations between the settlers in Pennsylvania and the Indians were always friendly.

From the painting by Benjamin West

THE MIDDLE COLONIES

erly Love," was laid out at the junction of the Schuylkill and Delaware Rivers. Settlers came rapidly, and within three years there was a population of 2500 in the city, and 8000 in the colony. England had learned much on the subject of colonisation since the terrible days of Jamestown and Plymouth. None of the later colonies suffered as the earlier ones had done.

Those who came to Pennsylvania were not all Quakers, though members of that sect were for many years in the major-

**Pennsylvania Set-
tlers not Exclu-
sively English**

ity. Generally they were of the English middle class, honest, shrewd and industrious.

The prevailing occupation in the colony was agriculture, but the mechanic arts were not neglected. Soon after the colony began, men of other nationalities began to arrive. There were already within the province, and the "territories," as the lower settlements on the Delaware were called, some Swedes and Dutch. Other Dutch soon came, as well as several sects of German Protestants, including Mennonites, Dunkers, Labadists, and Moravians. The largest foreign element, however, was composed of the German residents of the Palatinate, dispossessed by Louis XIV. To these must be added the North of Ireland Protestants, the so-called Scotch-Irish, who began to come in swarms soon after 1710, and who came to be an exceedingly important element in the colony.

Penn returned to England in 1684, hoping soon to return to watch his "holy experiment," but his stay was

**Penn Suffers
Because of
His Loyalty**

prolonged for fifteen years. Events in England were moving rapidly. Penn's

short-sighted and obstinate patron became James II, and embarked upon that stupid course which led to his deposition. Loyalty was one of Penn's characteristics, and his fidelity to his old friend and benefactor never wavered. Naturally he was suspected of double-dealing, and for a time after the accession of William III, he lived in close retirement. In 1693, he was deprived of his province, but it was restored the next year, and in 1699, the Proprietor again visited his domain.

Though Penn had transferred much of

his power of government to the people, all was not serene. From the beginning there was an element of discord which increased rather than diminished. Some of the deputy governors were unfortunate selections, for Penn seems to have lacked judgment in choosing men to carry out his plans. The "territories" were particularly troublesome, and in 1703 were erected into the separate province of Delaware, though under the same governor as Pennsylvania. After Penn's death, in 1718, the petty disputes between his heirs and the colonies continued even down to the Revolution.

The relations of the colony of Pennsylvania and the Indians have been the subject of much laudation, and Penn's treaty with the Red Men at Shackamaxon (1683) has been treated as if it were unique. While undoubtedly Penn's attitude was just and conciliatory, Indian

**Indian Rela-
tions in
Pennsylvania**

titles were purchased in nearly every other colony. The peaceful attitude of the Indians towards the

Pennsylvania settlements was due as much to their weakness as to the attitude of the whites. These Indians were Algonquins, the remnants of the Delawares, and they knew that interference with these settlers would bring upon them the vengeance of the Five Nations, always firm friends of New York.

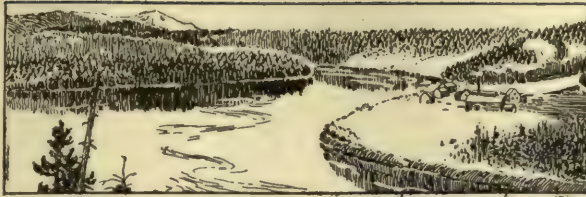
We have now brought down the history of the Middle Colonies to the end of the seventeenth century. By this time all of the original thirteen colonies, which later made up the United States, had been founded except Georgia. The Middle Colonies differed widely from the New England group on the one hand, and from the Southern on the other. The first settlers in these Middle Colonies had endured fewer hardships, and sooner gained a strong foothold. The New England colonies were almost entirely, and the Southern were largely, English in blood. In the Middle colonies there was much diversity. In religious matters they were tolerant, partly because of the circumstances of their beginning, partly because of this diversity of race and creed. We shall in the succeeding chapters trace their growth and development during the eighteenth century, up to the separation from England.



LANDING A CARGO OF NEGRO SLAVES IN THE AMERICAN COLONIES

Slavery was introduced into the English colonies in 1619, when a Dutch ship sold the little colony at Jamestown, twenty negro slaves. The institution spread until all the colonies held slaves. The trade was fostered by the British Government in the eighteenth century, as it was thought to aid the prosperity of the colonies. Slaves could not be used to advantage in the Northern colonies, and so slavery gradually disappeared in that section. In the South, more and more slaves were brought in. Later the colonies themselves engaged in the traffic, which was not forbidden by national law until 1808.

Specially drawn for the HISTORY OF THE WORLD by J. Walter Wilson, R. I.



THE COLONIES IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

THE POLITICAL, ECONOMIC, AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE THIRTEEN COLONIES

THE accession of William and Mary to the throne of Great Britain and Ireland in 1689 was important not only to the kingdom, but to the colonies. It marked the triumph of the Whig party, which stood against the divine right of kings, and for the supremacy of Parliament as the representative of the people. It was the party of the trading classes of the towns, as opposed to the country squires. It stood for the control and extension of trade, for religious toleration, for a vigorous foreign policy, and naturally for a closer supervision of colonial affairs for the interest of the Mother country.

All of these policies had their influence upon the colonies during the eighteenth century, and the attempt to enforce some of them led to rebellion and then to independence. Out of these principles grew the Intercolonial Wars, which were, however, only echoes of contests in Europe. These wars, which may be mentioned here, in order that we may dismiss them from our pages, were concerned with the attempts of England to cripple France in Europe and in America. The struggle, known in America as "King William's War" (1689-97) or "Frontenac's War," was a part of the War of the Palatinate, or of the League of Augsburg. It was marked by ruthless Indian attacks, led by Frenchmen from Canada. Some were successful, and much of New England and Upper New York was in terror. Schenectady, New York, and Salmon Falls, New Hampshire, were captured. On the other hand, the colonists sent an expedition which captured Port Royal, Acadia, and which failed to capture Montreal. A larger force under Sir William Phips failed to

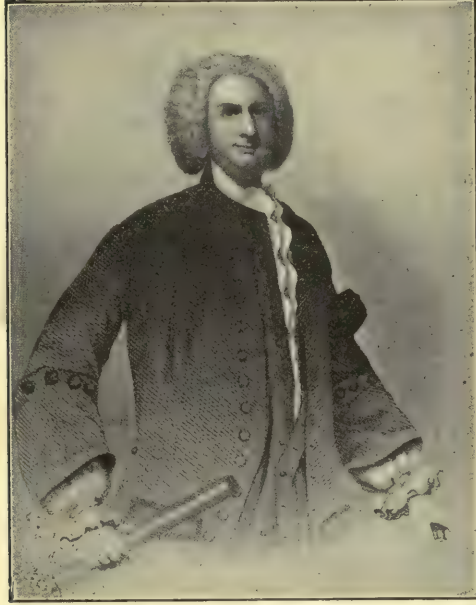
take Quebec. By the Peace of Ryswick (1697), territorial conditions were restored to the conditions before the war.

England did not long enjoy peace, but was soon involved in the War of the Spanish Succession (1702-13), called in America, "Queen Anne's War." Meanwhile the French had made a treaty with the Iroquois, who, however, would not join in an attack upon their English friends in New York. New England was harried by bands of Canadians and Indians. The capture of Deerfield, Massachusetts, in February, 1704, by fifty Canadians and two hundred Indians is best remembered. Fifty-three whites were killed and one hundred and eleven were carried away to Canada. Later the survivors were ransomed, but some who had married Indians and grown to love the forest life, refused to return.

A combined English and colonial expedition took Port Royal (1710), which has since remained in English hands. A larger expedition, badly led, failed to capture Quebec the next year. In this war, Spain was the ally of France. South Carolina and Florida (Georgia was not yet founded), the outposts in America, naturally joined the combat. A part of the whites and Indians from South Carolina burned St. Augustine, but could not take the fort. A combined Spanish and French fleet failed to take Charleston, through the stubborn resistance offered by the colonists. The treaty of Utrecht left England in possession of Acadia, hereafter called Nova Scotia, of Newfoundland and of the Hudson Bay region, but many questions of boundaries were left unsettled, and Indian troubles continued.

Peace with Canada lasted for a gener-

ation, but Oglethorpe, the governor of Georgia, and the Spanish commander at St. Augustine threatened each other (1740-42). With the outbreak in Europe of the War of the Austrian Succession (1744-48) America was again involved under the name, "King George's War." On Cape Breton Island, France had strongly fortified Louisbourg. Immediately after the declaration of war,



SIR WILLIAM PEPPERELL

Sir William Pepperell was born at Kittery, Maine, then a part of Massachusetts, in 1696. Through ship-building, trading and the fishing industry he became one of the wealthiest men in the province. He led the New England forces against Louisbourg in 1745, and for his services was created a baronet, one of the few native Americans so honoured.

Governor Shirley of Massachusetts planned the capture of this strong fortress, which was a favourite harbour for French privateers. New England sent a few ships, and 4,000 men under William Pepperell, a merchant, and, aided by a British fleet, took the place. This was a source of much satisfaction in England, as successes in Europe had been few. Other expeditions were planned, but British aid was lacking, and the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle gave Louisbourg back to France, thus laying the foundation for further trouble.

An attempt was made at this time to settle the boundary disputes, by the

appointment of a commission. France claimed all territory drained by the St. Lawrence, the Great Lakes and the Mississippi, thus confining the English to the narrow strip east of the Alleghanies. The charters of some of the English colonies made the Pacific the western boundary. Further it was claimed that France had recognised the Iroquois Confederacy as a vassal state of the English, and that all the western territory conquered by these warriors was subject to England. The differences could not be reconciled. Only force could decide.

One more war, the most important of all the colonial wars, known as the French and Indian War, was soon to come, but we shall delay mentioning it, until some notice has been given to the political system of the colonies, without which the wars cannot really be understood.

Spasmodic attempts to control the colonies had been made during the seventeenth century, but since the real power, during the greater part of the time, rested in the kings, influenced first by one policy and then by another, there was no colonial system. The quarrel of Parliament with Charles I, and the succeeding period of Puritan rule, so engrossed the minds of men for twenty years that the colonists were hardly disturbed. With the coming of Charles II, some effort was made to control colonial trade, and if James II had continued on the throne, a greater degree of interference would have been exercised.

The appointment, by William III, of the Board of Trade and Plantations in 1696, evidently indicated the desire to set up an organised body with a definite policy, but the foreign wars in which England became engaged hindered such a development. William was not an Englishman and affairs on the continent engrossed his time and attention. After his death the same condition continued for many years. The remoteness of the colonies was another factor in the neglect. Three thousand miles of water made an effective barrier to close supervision.

Now let us see with what the Board of

Attempts
to Control
the Colonies

THE COLONIES IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

Trade had to deal after its creation. Massachusetts, New York, New Hampshire, New Jersey, and Virginia were royal colonies, or soon became so. In them the Governor and other high officers were appointed in the name of the King, and the Governor himself generally appointed the lesser officials, though there was no absolutely uniform system. The instructions of the Governor were to be his guide in dealing with his province. Connecticut and Rhode Island were self-governing under their charters. Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland and the Carolinas were under the control of Proprietors, who appointed the officers, and stood between the provinces and the royal authority. In 1728, the charter of the Carolinas was revoked, and the King bought the rights to the soil of all except one of the Proprietors. Hereafter the two provinces were separated in fact as well as in name. Georgia was not founded until 1732, and grew so slowly that consideration of it may be omitted.

Every colony had an assembly elected by a larger or smaller percentage of the people, and through these assemblies the

Popular Representation in the Colonies

people waged, on the whole, a successful contest with the appointees of the Crown, or of the Proprietor or Proprietors. In fact, the political history of the eighteenth century, except in Connecticut and Rhode Island, is almost entirely a struggle between the Governors, striving to build up a strong executive, and the assemblies, striving with equal diligence to reduce imperial control to its lowest terms. One important bone of contention was the salary question. The English officials wished to have a fixed and regular salary attached to each post to be paid from taxes. The assemblies steadfastly insisted on following the custom of Parliament in making specific grants for short periods, and postponing the vote until near the end of the session.

Always the power of the purse has been a potent weapon. If a Governor were disposed to veto a bill, or insisted

The Colonial Governor and the Assembly

on some point in his instructions obnoxious to the Assembly that body might delay voting his salary until he capitulated. Few Governors were

rash enough to defy assemblies frequently. The life of a colonial Governor was not always a happy one, though personality, of course, counted for much. The arbitrary officer was always in hot water; the weak man sought the line of least resistance, and reconciled the conflicting instructions from England and the expression of colonial opinion as well as he was able. The exceptional men, as William Tryon, Governor, first of North Carolina, and later of New York, were usually able to guide their assemblies and to carry out their instructions with a minimum of friction, but few of the colonial Governors were men of such force. Generally they were incompetent relatives of important Englishmen, or else retired soldiers whose previous training and experience did not fit them for positions requiring discretion and tact. A few American-born Governors were appointed, but their success was hardly greater than that of the foreign-born. In the proprietary provinces the course of events was similar, if the word Proprietor is substituted for King.

Gradually the theory that the British Parliament did not possess absolute authority over the colonies developed. The colonies began, though they might not be able to put the thought into words, to regard themselves as, in some way, co-ordinate parts of the British Empire, not as subject to the Parliament in London. Their assemblies were, so far as the colonies were concerned, the legislative authority, and loyalty to the King became, according to this view, the common bond. The theory was not commonly held, of course, but gained ground in the eighteenth century. If it came to be generally held, it is obvious that the Revolution was inevitable, when Parliament attempted to exercise its authority in a way unpleasant or obnoxious to the colonists.

The varying charters of the colonies made a uniform system of administration impossible, and many of the colonial administrators advocated consolidation into larger units. This had been attempted in the formation of the Dominion of New England, already mentioned, and the idea did not die. A favourite

Development of Colonial Jealousy

suggestion was the formation of two provinces, a Northern and a Southern, though some suggested three. The colonists steadfastly opposed any such idea. Though boundary disputes were frequent, no colony was willing to lose its identity, but wished to gain territory and population by acquiring additional territory. The conflicting and contradictory grants of the Stuart period gave opportunity for many such disputes.

Next to the question of the royal prerogative, the problem of trade was most important. The first real attempt to control colonial trade was

The Navigation Acts applied to Colonial Trade

made under the Commonwealth. The Navigation Act of 1651 provided that only English (including colonial) ships should carry any products to England or its territories. The policy was continued after the Restoration, as to certain articles, and it was further enacted that all goods going to or from the colonies must pass through English ports. For example, Dutch goods intended for Massachusetts must first be brought to England and then transshipped. On the other hand, colonial goods to pay for such foreign articles must go through English intermediaries. A flourishing trade grew up between the various English colonies in America, including the West Indies, and in 1673, it was provided that any commodity which could be supplied by England must pay a duty, equivalent to that imposed in England. In other words, one colony must not supply another with goods in competition with England. Many other acts were passed at the instigation of the commercial interests in England, and in 1731 the policy of repressing colonial manufacture of goods, that were also made in England, began.

In all these acts England was only carrying out the theory of the purpose of colonies, accepted by the world. A colony was expected to afford a market for the goods of the Mother Country and to furnish raw materials for its manufactures. It existed for the benefit of the Mother Country, and must help, not hinder, the development of the trade of the home country. Far from treating her colonies with extraordinary harshness, the attitude of England was, compared

with the policy of every other country, surprisingly generous. The colonial ships had a share in the trade, and some colonial products were protected from foreign competition.

In spite of all these acts, foreign trade increased. For the lack of efficient administration, the acts were not enforced.

The Non-Enforcement of Commercial Regulations

Either they were ignored altogether, or else smuggling was so easy that there was little restraint. Little or no discredit was attached to smuggling in the popular mind. As late as 1763 Grenville found that the entire amount of duties collected in America did not exceed £2,000. Bribery of customs officials was common, and it has been charged that high officials, even governors, winked at smuggling for a share of the profits. Many men of prominence were engaged in the forbidden traffic. John Hancock, later prominent in measures of resistance to Great Britain, and still later Governor of Massachusetts, was a notorious smuggler. The people believed that the customs laws were imposed from without for the benefit of a particular class in England, and that they were unjust.

Now let us study a little the various elements in the population of the various colonies. As has been shown, only New York and Delaware were founded by other than English pioneers, and in these colonies the Dutch and Swedish settlers were overwhelmed by the blood of their conquerors. New England was almost exclusively English, and so remained until after the Revolution. New York was always polyglot. Though the English were largely in the majority in New Jersey and Pennsylvania, men from other nationalities came from the first. The same may be said of Maryland, Virginia and the Carolinas during the first years of their existence. Later all the Middle and Southern colonies received large accessions of other blood.

Soon after the stupid advice of the councillors of Louis XIV had encouraged him to revoke the Edict of Nantes

The Huguenot Element in the Colonies

(1685), French Huguenots came to America, and settled in several of the colonies. Canada was closed to them as heretics, but New Rochelle in

THE COLONIES IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

New York bears testimony to its founders by its name. In Virginia and North Carolina considerable settlements were made also, but South Carolina became their chief haven. There they became rich and influential, and took a prominent part in the commercial, political and social life of the colony and afterward of the state. Altogether they have exerted an influence in America altogether out of proportion to their actual numbers. Today their descendants furnish an unusual proportion of leaders in many lines of accomplishment.

A larger though less influential colonial element was composed of various groups of Germans. The first German Quakers (Menmonites) came to Pennsylvania soon after the colony was founded, and settled at Germantown near Philadelphia. During the war of the Palatinate, mentioned above as King William's War, Louis XIV ravaged that unhappy district with fire and sword. Thousands of the unhappy Protestants fled to England, where their presence became a burden. Some were sent to North Carolina, where they joined the Swiss nobleman, Baron de Graffenried, in the settlement of New Berne. Others were sent to New York and settled in the Mohawk and the Schoharie valleys. We shall hear from them later, during the Revolution.

By far the largest number went to Pennsylvania. Thousands came over as "indentured servants" or "redemptioners." These were men who sold themselves into servitude for a fixed term of years in order to pay the expenses of their passage. Others came on their own responsibility. The overflow from Pennsylvania followed the foothills of the mountains into Piedmont Virginia, and North Carolina. New Jersey also received many Germans by way of Pennsylvania.

Another large element, perhaps the most influential in its effect upon America, was the North of Ireland Presbyterians, the so-called Ulstermen, the so-called "Scotch-Irish," the cousins of the Ulstermen of today. They were the descendants of the Scotch who had been planted in the North of Ireland under James I, with the idea of overcoming

Catholicism there. The project was a failure so far as its influence upon the native Irish population was concerned, and the immigrants and their descendants remained aliens. Those commercial interests which we have found interfering with the industrial progress of the American colonies also interfered with them, and after 1720 they came to America in thousands, until just before the Revolution.

The larger part landed in Philadelphia and made its way westward. When the back country began to be crowded, according to the standards of the day, some went to New Jersey, while the larger part moved southward following the same general route as the Germans. In North and South Carolina they met another stream which had landed at Charleston, and was making its way into the back country. Strong, sturdy, courageous and resourceful, they made ideal pioneers, and soon were to burst over the Alleghanies into the Mississippi Valley. During the Revolution they were stubborn fighters, and their descendants have spread over the whole United States. No other element, except the original English, has so profoundly influenced the history of America.

There were still other elements. The Swiss settlement in North Carolina was almost destroyed in the Tuscarora War,

but many landed in Pennsylvania, where they were often confused with the Germans because of the common language. Scotch-Highlanders came, chiefly to North Carolina, after the disaster at Culloden in 1746. Among them were Flora MacDonald and her husband. There were Welsh settlements in several of the colonies, and some small groups of native Irish were also to be found, though these settled by individuals and by families almost everywhere. In all the commercial cities were Jews.

Another element not to be omitted was the African. The first negroes, as has been stated, were sold in Virginia in 1619. Others came in later, but the increase was slow, though the institution of slavery gradually spread over the other colonies as they were founded. The English

Other Racial Elements in the Colonies

The Ulstermen in America

Slavery and the Slave Trade in the Colonies

government encouraged the institution, through its monopoly of the slave trade, but with small success at first. In the northern states, slaves were unprofitable in agriculture, and they were valued chiefly as house servants, except along the Hudson River. In early years there was little or no feeling against the institution except among the Quakers, and some of them even were slave-holders. Slaves, black, white and red, were to be found, though the Indians were generally unsatisfactory. In 1760 the colonies north of Maryland contained 87,000 slaves compared with 299,000 in the southern colonies. This discrepancy was due almost entirely to economic conditions. Though the northern states held comparatively few slaves, the trade in "black ivory" in the latter half of the century was almost entirely in the hands of the shipowners of New England, New York and Philadelphia. Newport, Rhode Island was the chief port. Loaded with rum, the ship would sail for some point on the African coast and exchange its cargo for negroes, chiefly captives taken in war, and spared death because of the price which could be secured for them. The ship then sailed for the West Indies or the colonies on the continent. A cargo of molasses or of naval stores was then taken to New England, where the molasses was converted into rum for another triangular voyage.

The accepted estimate of the population of the colonies in 1690, which we have taken as a point of departure, is 220,000. The greatest hardships of pioneer days were no longer present in the eastern settlements, at least. People had learned how to live in the new country, and while the mortality was large, the newer colonies suffered no such losses as Virginia and Plymouth in their early days. Food was abundant, and no one who would work need suffer. Families were large, for children were a great help in agriculture, which was the chief occupation in all the colonies, though fishing steadily grew more important in New England, and with it ship-building. Various articles were carried from colony to colony in the small ships of which hundreds were owned in the various ports. After 1640 comparatively few immigrants came to New England, and

the population of more than 100,000 in 1700 was almost entirely native born.

In the other colonies the admixtures of other nationalities was greater. New York was always heterogeneous, as was

Pennsylvania. New Jersey and Maryland contained a larger portion of English. Virginia was almost entirely English until the German and Scotch immigration. North Carolina was almost as much mixed as New York, while South Carolina received her Huguenot immigration very early and Scotch-Irish and German somewhat later. Probably, in 1750, two-thirds to three-fourths of the population was of English descent. In all these colonies the legal system, the principles of justice, were English. English was the common language, except that in portions of Pennsylvania, the Germans used a German dialect even until the end of the nineteenth century.

None of the colonies was a pure democracy. All held slaves, who, of course, did not vote, and there were restrictions upon white suffrage, which lasted until long after the Revolution. In Virginia there had been a considerable Cavalier immigration, and this element, accustomed to rule, at once took a prominent position. While the proportion of men of gentle birth was actually very small, this ideal became the dominant factor in the social structure of Virginia. The yeoman hoped to become a planter dwelling upon a large estate, and living the life of an English gentleman, with slaves, however, instead of tenants to till his lands. This ideal influenced all the southern colonies to a greater or less extent, and persisted down to the destruction of the Confederacy in 1865. This ideal was not even faintly realised, except in the eastern portion, however. The Piedmont region was frontier down to the Revolution, and frontier conditions prevailed. Among the Scotch-Irish and the Germans there was comparatively little aristocratic consciousness. Maryland resembled Virginia in most respects, while South Carolina was even more aristocratic. On the other hand, perhaps no other colony presented so close an approach to a pure democracy as North Carolina.

THE COLONIES IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

In New England, from the first, social gradations were recognised. The ministers, high officers in the state, and their descendants, elders in the churches, and the wealthier and better educated portions of the communities claimed and received a certain deference. Then, too, the descendants of the earlier immigrants claimed social superiority over the later-comers. The classes recognised were gentlemen, yeomen, merchants and mechanics. As the years went on toward the Revolution, these divisions became less sharp, but down to 1772, students of Harvard College were arranged in the catalogue according to their social rank. Likewise the custom of seating the congregation in the church according to station in life was persistent. All this is particularly true of eastern Massachusetts. Naturally in Rhode Island lines were less strictly drawn, though a rich trading class secured a certain predominance. Maine was frontier, and most of New Hampshire also, though around Portsmouth there was a distinct aristocracy.

In the Middle colonies likewise there was variation. The lords of the manors on the Hudson, the successors of the patroons, lived among their tenants in a state not equalled anywhere else in America. The rich merchants in New York, and the professional men whom they supported, formed an exclusive society, to which the ordinary tradesmen were not admitted. There was a well-to-do middle class, partly of Dutch, partly of English origin, which lived in comfortable farm houses in the Hudson and Mohawk Valleys. On Long Island the English element predominated. New Jersey was less aristocratic perhaps, but the "gentlemen farmers" were important and influential. In eastern Pennsylvania, much respect was shown to social rank, but in the west, among the Scotch-Irish and the Germans social distinctions were less regarded. Among the former, however, the ministry was looked upon with great reverence. Conditions in Delaware resembled those in Maryland or Eastern Pennsylvania.

One difficulty in maintaining social distinctions in the colonies was the ease with

which any man of energy could become independent. Every colony founded directly from England had, at first, white servants bound by contract for specific periods, but these seldom remained servants. There was apparently limitless land, and a tract could easily be obtained. A fresh supply of servants was continually demanded, and the practice of kidnapping children and even adults grew common. Minors on arrival were bound to a master until of age, and adults for a limited period. Many thousand individuals sold



SPECIMENS OF COLONIAL CHAIRS

their services for a term of years, to sea captains in return for their passage. These contracts were then transferred to colonists, often at a considerable profit. Many sea captains made fortunes by the traffic in white servants. The master was bound to provide sufficient food and clothing, and at the end of the period, usually three to seven years, to furnish a certain amount of capital, which might take the form of a sum of money, a horse or a small tract of land. These "indentured servants" were called "redemptioners" in some colonies, and often became prosperous and influential citizens. Many of them were of German blood from the Palatinate.

For many years the English authorities attempted to throw upon the colonists the responsibility for a less desirable class. Convicts, vagabonds and beggars were also sent over, in spite of colonial protests. Some of the crimes, for which sentences of transportation were inflicted, had to do with religious observances, and to-day are not punishable by law; others were political offenses, and might fall into the same division. The severity of the

laws made felonies of acts which to-day are hardly misdemeanours, and thousands were sentenced to transportation for what seem to us trivial offenses, not casting permanent discredit. Larger opportunities gave them a chance to redeem themselves and a large proportion became excellent citizens. Many ordinary felons were sent over, however, and their story is somewhat different. In the new country some of these criminals secured a new hold upon life and developed into good citizens, but more often they gravitated to the frontier, where they were under less restraint than in the older portions of the colonies.

Since all of these three classes, hired servants, indented servants and criminals, were unsatisfactory, because of the tem-

The Distribution of Negro Slaves porary nature of their services, in those colonies where large numbers were required, recourse was had to Africans. Europe demanded the rice, tobacco and indigo produced in the southern colonies, and there naturally were to be found the largest number of negroes. The crops which could be grown in New England were those upon which slave labour could not be employed to advantage, and it was due more to this fact, than to any moral repugnance to the institution itself, that slavery never became an important factor in this section. In some parts of the Middle Colonies slaves comprised a considerable part of the population, but the Quaker theories were opposed, and it did not flourish in Pennsylvania to the degree which might have been expected. Generally speaking, the treatment of slaves was harsh where they greatly outnumbered the whites, but slavery in practice was always more humane than slave codes would indicate. These codes were made for the unusual occasion, and the harshest provisions were held in reserve for great emergencies. In ordinary times these regulations were often disregarded.

Agriculture was naturally the leading occupation in all the colonies, since in order to produce food enough for all, the largest part of the population must till the soil. There were no labour-saving devices, which now enable a much smaller proportion of those engaged in productive industry to produce the food

for the whole. The colonial farmer's plough was little superior to that used in Egypt 2,000 years before. His grain was sown by hand, cut with a sickle, beaten out with a flail, and separated in primitive fashion from the chaff. His wagons were clumsy, and the wretched roads made transportation a nightmare. Much of the country had been covered by dense forests and clearing the land was a difficult problem. The tree was an enemy which must be overcome.

The frontier was that portion of the country immediately beyond the settlements, and, therefore, varied with every generation. The pioneer pushing into the woods, would build a hut and "girdle" the trees, that is, re-

The Shifting Frontier in America move a ring of bark around the trunks, thus causing them to die. Among the dead trunks he would plant Indian corn and pumpkins. A few cattle and hogs would be kept, if they could be protected from bears. As the years went on, these trunks would be cut down and burned with the help of his neighbours, and the clearing would be extended. Somewhat later, houses of boards replaced the log huts, and the families might live in rude plenty and even in comparative comfort, as they understood the meaning of the word.

According to our standards, the life was unendurably hard, since many of our necessities were unknown. Matches are an invention of the nineteenth century. The fire was carefully guarded winter and summer, for if it went out, either live coals must be brought from a neighbour's house, or else with difficulty be rekindled by striking a flint with steel and directing the sparks upon some inflammable material. Except in the older communities, mechanics were few. Often the farmer was compelled to make or mend his own tools. Perhaps he tanned the hide of a slaughtered ox, and from the leather made harness and shoes. Boards were at first hewed out from the tree trunks with an adze. Nails were scarce and dear, and wooden pegs were used instead. A pioneer farmer was, of necessity, a jack-of-all-trades.

The lot of the frontier woman was hard. Except in the wealthiest families, she spun the wool or the flax, knit the



A FINE EXAMPLE OF A COLONIAL KITCHEN

The colonial kitchen was the centre of household activity. Notice the pots hanging from the crane in the fireplace, the various cooking utensils and the guns above. The oven in which bread was baked is to the left of the fireplace. Notice also the flax wheel to the right. This was the kitchen of the childhood home of John Howard Payne, the author of "Home, Sweet Home," at Easthampton, Long Island.

Photograph by Brown Bros.

The Pioneer Woman and Her Trials

yarn into stockings, or wove it into cloth, and made the clothes for the family. She made soap from grease carefully accumulated, and lye obtained by leaching wood ashes. She made the tallow candles, the chief source of light. She milked and made the butter, if a cow or cows were kept. She was responsible for the garden, and usually for the preservation of the meat supply. In the house, she had almost no conveniences. Cook stoves were unknown and kitchen utensils few and rude. Water was usually to be obtained from a spring, often at some distance, horizontally or vertically, from the house. Obviously under these conditions a large family was an asset and not a liability. There was no question of child labour then. Children had their tasks as soon as they could walk, and they were held to them. While the lot of the

man was hard, that of the woman was intolerably severe. When one walks through a colonial graveyard and reads the inscriptions on the gravestones, he is appalled by the number of married women who died before the age of forty.

Of course, after the first few years in the settlement of a colony, this description did not apply to all the people, but it

did apply to some of them
The Frontier Has Not Yet Disappeared all through the colonial period, and for that matter

frontier conditions have existed in some parts of the United States almost down to the present day. With slight modification this description applies to the conquering of the West after the Revolution. In some of the remoter parts of our country, and even in the parts of the original thirteen as yet untouched by modern progress, hand looms and spinning wheels are yet to be found,

HISTORY OF THE WORLD

soap is yet made, and cook stoves are uncommon.

On the southern plantations in the tidewater region and in the valleys westward, the greater part of the actual labour just described was performed by slaves, but the master and the mistress were called upon to direct and supervise it all, as well as to look after their hu-

From Europe came also silks, fine linen and laces for both sexes, broadcloth, wines, glass and silver plate. Commerce played a part in developing northern and middle sea-port towns, many of which have since decayed with the changes in ocean transportation. Ships were built for the coasting trade,

Why Towns Did Not Develop in the South

played a part in developing northern and middle sea-port towns, many of which have since decayed



EXAMPLES OF FINE FURNITURE MADE IN THE COLONIES

man chattels. But on the constantly retreating southern frontier, conditions were not essentially different from those in Pennsylvania or New England, which have just been described. In these colonies where slaves were numerous, they were not universally held. Only a small proportion of the population of any southern colony ever held slaves.

In the older communities in all the colonies near the sea coast, some of the frontier conditions were soon overcome. There saw mills were set up, and the log huts were replaced by frame structures, or else solidly-built brick or stone houses were to be seen. Some of the houses built before the Revolution are admirable in design and construction. Skilled mechanics in the towns built furniture and vehicles, which satisfied all but the most fastidious. For these a supply was brought from Europe.

or to cross the ocean. The chief exports were dried fish, lumber, furs and rum. In the South, the owner of a great plantation might send his rice, tobacco or indigo directly to Europe, and bring back such things as he needed or desired, or else trading ships of light draught sailed up the streams, and exchanged European goods for the products of the scattered plantations. Some owners of plantations purchased the products of the smaller farmers and shipped them with their own. They were naturally obliged to import some goods for these neighbours, and these rural storehouses hindered the development of towns in the South. In this section no city developed, except Charleston, during the colonial period, though Baltimore was a prosperous town.

Manufacturing was rudimentary in the colonies, for the factory system did not develop until the nineteenth century had

begun. Occasionally a man made more of an article than his neighbourhood could consume, and sought to find customers elsewhere, but if his production increased too much, he found himself in conflict with the laws of England. Since the purpose of colonies was to serve the needs of the mother country, competition could not be allowed. As early as 1624, a small amount of iron had been smelted near Jamestown, and the industry spread. Some small foundries were set up, but in 1750 it was forbidden to export any manufacture of iron to England. Over 3,000 tons of pig iron, however, were sent thither in 1775. Restrictions on trade in cloth, in hats and the like were imposed. Raw wool must be sent to England to be manufactured. Of course these restrictions did not apply to cloth woven for use in the family.

The little shops were thus reduced to supplying the local demand, and on the whole did it tolerably well. Some of the

**The Local
Mechanics and
their Work**

houses built in the first half of the eighteenth century stand to-day as pleasing architectural types, and even the most expensive were furnished to a large extent with local products. Little of the furniture which to-day is prized as antique was manufactured in Europe. In the South, the Swiss and Germans furnished the largest number of skilled artisans, though some of the slaves were trained into skilled workmen. Negro women wove the cloth with which the labourers on the plantations were clothed, and often made the garments as well, though this practice was more common in the nineteenth century than the eighteenth.

During the first half of the eighteenth century, population increased rapidly. In 1690, as has been said, the population of the colonies then in existence is estimated at 220,000. In 1760 it was probably 1,600,000, of which the New England colonies counted about 475,000, the Middle colonies 405,000, and the South, including Maryland, about 720,000, including slaves. These figures are estimates, of course, but some reliance may be placed upon them. The only towns of considerable size were Boston and Philadelphia with a population of perhaps 20,000 each, and New York and Charles-

ton with about 10,000 each. In New England were several other towns, which had some importance as trading centres. In the other colonies, towns were fewer and smaller.

The educational status of the colonies varied. There were educated men among the first settlers, and when the first hard-

ships were over we find books among the importations. For the New England settlers an educated ministry was a necessity, and in order to make provision for a supply, a school was founded in 1636, which two years later became Harvard College. William and Mary College was founded at Williamsburg, Virginia, in 1693, under Anglican auspices, and became an important factor in Virginian culture. The increase of liberalism in Massachusetts, which has been mentioned, had its effect upon the governing body of Harvard, and led the orthodox body in New England to found, in 1701, a school which should be conservative in theology. In 1716, after moving several times, it was finally located at New Haven, and two years later was named Yale College in honour of a benefactor. The College of New Jersey, now Princeton, was chartered in 1746, under Presbyterian auspices, though no religious test was required for students. Benjamin Franklin, of whom we shall hear more later, in 1749, proposed the establishment of a school in Philadelphia. It was opened for students in 1751, and after many vicissitudes developed into the University of Pennsylvania. King's College, which has since developed into Columbia University, was founded at New York in 1754, under Anglican influences. Three other institutions were founded before the Revolution; Rhode Island College, now Brown University, chartered in 1764, through the efforts of the Baptists; Queen's, now Rutgers, chartered in 1766; and Dartmouth College, chartered in 1769. One purpose of the last-named institution was the education of the Indians. Another institution, Queen's Museum, in North Carolina, failed to obtain a charter. Before the Revolution, none of these institutions was more than an academy, judged by modern standards, but all did good work and exerted wide influence.

**Education
and
Culture**

HISTORY OF THE WORLD

Some of the wealthier families sent their sons to Oxford or Cambridge, and a smaller number sought higher education in France. The rolls

The Influence of Foreign Universities

of the English universities show names familiar to us because of their subsequent prominence in America. In the South, Oxford, which was royalist to the core, was the favourite, while those New Englanders who sought education abroad generally chose Cambridge, where the Puritan influence was strong.

For those who did not attend college, educational opportunities were limited. Massachusetts, in 1647, had ordered every town of fifty families to support an elementary school, and every one of a hundred families to support a grammar school, but this law was often ignored. There were a few public schools in the other colonies, and a large number of private schools. In the South, planters would unite to support a teacher, or the wealthier families would have a tutor. There were also private schools, some of which, under the control of some clergyman, gave instruction in theology. In all the colonies, except New England, the scattering of the population rendered the maintenance of efficient schools difficult, and many men and women grew to manhood and womanhood without the rudiments of education. The compact New England town, the outgrowth of the fact that the early settlers came over by congregations and not singly, had its influence on education as well as in government. The qualifications of the teachers were not uniform. Often they were clergymen who eked out their scanty salaries in this way. Sometimes they were individuals who had failed in everything else. In the Middle and Southern colonies they were occasionally indented servants. In all the colonies we find well-to-do men signing deeds by making their marks.

Less attention was paid to the education of girls than of boys, and the percentage of feminine illiteracy was very high. It was considered

The Education of Girls Neglected

more important that a girl should be a good housekeeper and a skilled needlewoman than that she should be able to read Latin. We find, nevertheless, dur-

ing the colonial period occasional instances of women who were able to secure advanced instruction from a tutor, usually a learned clergyman. No institution for girls offering more than elementary instruction existed until after the Revolution.

A printing press appeared in Massachusetts in 1639, and gradually establishments were set up in the colonies. The first newspaper, the Boston News Letter, was established in 1704, and in 1750 there were said to be only seven newspapers in the colonies. A few books were printed, generally of a theological or historical nature, but nothing which can be called literature was produced.

Preparation for the professions was difficult. Some physicians and lawyers were trained in Europe, but the majority had gained whatever training they had by a sort of apprenticeship to older practitioners. At the time

of the Revolution it is estimated that only one physician in nine in the colonies possessed a degree in medicine. As the principles of the law are more or less fixed, this process, though somewhat wasteful of time, produced some excellent results. The eighteenth century in America has some great legal names to its credit. So much cannot be said of medicine. Bleeding was a sovereign remedy for all diseases, and many a man suffered the same fate as George Washington, who was bled to death. The medicine chest contained a few drugs of vigorous action, designed to produce purging or vomiting. Many quack remedies were also given. Fortunately nearly every old woman possessed some knowledge, real or supposed, of the properties of roots and herbs. Preparations of these were freely administered in ordinary cases, as the physician was called only in serious emergencies. These decoctions, if they did little good, at least were not likely to do much harm. Training in theology was given by some clergyman with a reputation for learning and orthodoxy, to whom a few pupils came for instruction. The colleges taught more or less theology, as this was the chief purpose for which some of them were founded. The Anglican clergymen, however, were chiefly of English birth, as the colonies



THE ROGER MORRIS HOUSE, USUALLY CALLED THE JUMEL MANSION



THE VAN CORTLANDT HOUSE, NOW IN A NEW YORK PARK

These two houses are now within the corporate limits of New York City, though when built were in the country. The upper was built, in 1758, by Roger Morris, husband of Mary Philipse, who is said to have refused the hand of George Washington. During the military operations around New York it was Washington's headquarters, and many other distinguished men have been sheltered beneath its roof. It afterwards passed into the hands of Stephen Jumel, whose widow married Aaron Burr. The lower was built in 1748 on the Van Cortlandt estate, now a part of the park system of New York City. It stands to-day after more than a hundred and sixty years as strong as when built. Both are now historical museums.

Photographs by Brown Brothers



THE HANCOCK HOUSE IN BOSTON

were under the Bishop of London.

Superstition was not confined to medicine. Belief in witchcraft hardly died out during the eighteenth century. In

1692, twenty persons were put to death in Salem, Massachusetts, on the charge of witchcraft. This delusion

was not peculiar to America, however. In England the last victims suffered death in 1716, and in Scotland in 1722. The last judicial execution for the supposed crime took place in Switzerland in 1782, ninety years after the Salem craze. Other superstitions persisted into the nineteenth century, if indeed they can be said to be dead to-day. Such were planting and gathering crops according to the phases of the moon, the special potency of the blood of black animals and the like. Many of those prevalent in the South came from Africa with the slaves.

To summarise what has been said in the preceding pages, we can say that the colonists, up to 1750, say, had made long strides towards self-government. In their assemblies they were often able to thwart the representative of the Crown or of the Proprietor, and to gain their own way. In the New England town meeting, or in the vestry meetings of the South, questions of local government were discussed, and men were being

trained to take their places in a larger arena. In the various expeditions against Canada, and in their warfare with the Indians, a considerable portion of the population had gained an idea of military service, and had found themselves quite equal to the British soldier *in resource if not in steadiness*.

Economically the colonies were now self-supporting, and the development of their rudimentary establishments could

become almost self-contained. They had learned that if necessary they could do without most of the things which they could not make for themselves, and were beginning to realise something of the resources of the continent. Socially they were children of Europe. Among the first settlers were many men of education and culture. Their children and their grandchildren had less formal education than their forefathers. The general level of literacy was probably somewhat lower in the first half of the eighteenth century than it had been in the seventeenth, but the colonists had gained in self-reliance through their experience in the new country. The common man had not yet come into his own, but he had found that success did not depend so largely upon birth as it had done in Europe.

**Lessons
Learned by
the Colonists**

AMERICA



ON THE
VERGE OF
REVOLT

THE BEGINNINGS OF THE REVOLUTION

HOW THE LOYALTY OF THE COLONIES WAS CHANGED INTO THE DESIRE FOR INDEPENDENCE

THE expulsion of the French from North America resulted in the independence of the British colonies. The British colonists in North America, through a long period of neglect, had developed self-reliance, and restlessness under political control imposed from without. A very few dreamers in these colonies had perhaps begun to think of independent existence. Several Frenchmen had foreseen the possible consequences of the destruction of the French power,—that the English colonies would not continue dependent. But the presence of the French in Canada, their claims to the Mississippi Valley, made independence impossible. When the French menace was removed, events justified the prophecies of Montesquieu and Turgot.

The dispute which resulted in the destruction of French dominion in America grew out of conflicting claims left unsettled by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, which ended the War of the Austrian Succession, called in America, "King George's War." The general understanding of international law in respect to colonisation gave to any power the territory drained by the rivers flowing into the sea in that part of the sea-coast controlled by it. Now France had explored and settled the St. Lawrence territory and had settled Louisiana. If the contention of drainage be allowed, France would control the vast St. Lawrence and Mississippi Valleys, and the country drained by the Great Lakes, while the English would be confined to a narrow strip a thousand miles long, east of the Alleghany Mountains. The thrilling story of French exploration and settlement, upon which these claims were based, is told in the history of Canada elsewhere in this volume.

On the other hand, some of the early English charters had granted to the colonists the territory through America to the western ocean, and both England and Spain had protested against French occupation of Louisiana. The French occupation of the Mississippi was bound to meet with opposition, not only from England, but also from those of her colonies which had western land claims. Further, the English wished the land for occupation and settlement, while the French wished it to remain unoccupied for the sake of the fur trade. There was no possibility of compromise. The conflict was irrepressible. In no way, save by force of arms, could the conflicting claims be settled. Finally the explosion came.

The Iroquois, though friendly to the English, held a belt of territory stretching from Lake Champlain to the Allegheny River, and looked with disfavour upon the attempt of either English or French to settle it.

Rival Attempts to Gain the West

Further to the south, however, in the Ohio Valley, was much rich land and few Indians. In this territory the French began to plant a chain of forts to protect their trade, and to keep out the English. Already, in 1749, an "Ohio Company" had been formed in Virginia to occupy the territory, and a young Virginian, George Washington, had led a surveying party into the "back country." Another large tract was granted to the Loyal Land Company. Governor Dinwiddie of Virginia, in 1753, sent Washington, a youth of twenty-one years, but a major in the Virginia militia, this time to warn the French that the region was Virginia territory. The French commander at Fort Le Bœuf treated him with courtesy, but clearly indicated that he would obey the orders of his superiors.



When the French began to build forts on the Ohio River, a young surveyor named George Washington was sent, in 1753, by the governor of Virginia to order them away. With a few companions he reached the French forts, where he was courteously received, but given no satisfaction.

On his return with the message of the French commander, Washington met a party on its way to establish a trading post at the junction of the Monongahela and the Allegheny Rivers — the present site of Pittsburgh.

Washington reported the result of his mission, and early in 1754, a Virginia regiment was sent to hold the strategic point. The French had already driven away the traders, and had built a

**The French
Gain the First
Advantage**

rude fort, which they called for the Governor of Canada, Fort Duquesne. The way through the woods and over the mountains was terribly difficult, and sometimes only a mile a day could be made. A scouting party under Washington surprised a party of French upon a similar mission at Great Meadows, and ten of the French force were killed. A few days later Washington, then in command of the Virginia force, was forced to surrender a rude entrenchment he had constructed and named Fort Necessity. War had begun. His little

force marched out with the honours of war, but an Indian chief, Half King, is said to have remarked that the French behaved like cowards and the English like fools. Owing to the European situation, however, war was not formally declared until 1756, when the contest in America became part of the "Seven Years' War," during which England strove to wrest India as well as America from France.

The first expedition against Fort Duquesne, ending in the disastrous defeat of General Braddock; the final capture of the fort; the unsuccessful expeditions against Crown Point and Ticonderoga, and their later evacuation; the expeditions against Niagara, and finally the capture of Quebec, all of these are described fully in the History of Canada and will not be discussed here. It is enough to say that the struggle was long, and that the horrors of Indian warfare were added. Both England and France sent some of their best troops, and their best generals to take part in the contest.

THE BEGINNINGS OF THE REVOLUTION

Peace was finally made by the Treaty of Paris (1763). France surrendered all Canada, and transferred Louisiana to Spain. England returned Havana, which had been taken from Spain during the war, but in exchange took Florida. France was left without a foot of land on the continent. Two tiny islands off Newfoundland remained of her vast possessions. Only Spain and England now held territory in North America, and the position of England was immeasurably stronger than that of her rival.

Before the war, the fear had been felt that the French had at last gained the favour of the Six Nations. This proved

The Albany Congress Proves Fruitless

to be only partially true, for the influence of William Johnson, who lived among them in feudal

state, held the Mohawks firm, and the other tribes maintained their neutrality. On the initiative of the royal governors, a congress of the colonies was called to meet at Albany, in June, 1754, to make sure of the loyalty of the Six Nations, and to concert measures for common defense. Delegates from New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New York, Pennsylvania and Maryland were present,—seven colonies of the thirteen. A general union of the colonies was proposed, and Benjamin Franklin, of whom we shall hear more later, presented the "Albany Plan." It provided for a President General, appointed and paid by the Crown, and a Grand Council, to be composed of not less than two, nor more than seven members from each colony, the number depending upon the military strength. The members of the Grand Council were to be elected by the legislative assemblies. The body should have charge of Indian affairs, and have the sole power to legislate for the colonies as a whole. It might levy taxes, enlist soldiers and build forts, but its acts were subject to the veto of the President General and of the Crown.

While this plan was approved by the delegates, or at least not rejected by them, the assemblies of the different

The Official Attitude Toward the Colonies

states would have none of it, nor did the Crown look upon it with favour.

Franklin said: "The assemblies all thought there was too much

prerogative, and in England it was thought to have too much of the democratic." In this he was probably correct, for the Board of Trade and Plantations was not anxious for the colonies to unite of their own accord. On the other hand, this scheme provided that it should be put into effect by an act of Parliament, and so far had opinion moved in the colonies that some had taken the position that Parliament had no power to legislate for the colonies. No colony was willing to surrender any of its power or privileges.

Yet the necessity of some sort of union had been emphasised by many royal governors, including Shirley and Bernard of Massachusetts, and Dinwiddie of Virginia. After the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, colonial affairs were more discussed in England, but the outbreak of the war postponed consideration of specific plans. With the accession of George III, a king who was unwilling to be a figure-head, as his two predecessors had been, and who even wished to restore the Stuart ideal of kingship, greater supervision of colonial affairs was inevitable.

England found herself after the Peace of Paris with immensely increased territory and prestige, but deeply in debt.

The Position of England After the War

The cost of the war had been enormous, the national debt had increased, and it was suggested that

the colonies pay a part of the cost of the army which it was proposed to keep in America, for the purpose of keeping the Indians in order, and to prevent a French uprising. It seemed perfectly reasonable in England that the colonies, enjoying as they did imperial protection, should share the burdens.

The prime minister, who attempted to put this policy into effect, was George Grenville, a conscientious official and a good financier, but a man without vision or imagination. He found that the total customs revenue from the American colonies was about £2,000, collected at a cost of nearly £8,000; that the various Acts of Trade had not been enforced; that customs officials had regarded their offices as sinecures, and had generally resided in England. Though the Molasses Act of 1733, fixing an almost prohibitive rate on foreign sugar, molasses and rum

brought to the colonies, had been on the statute books for thirty years, the revenue derived had been trifling. During this period the colonies had smuggled thousands of barrels of sugar and molasses, from which rum was distilled.

The knowledge of these irregularities led Grenville to make strenuous efforts to correct the abuses. Customs officials

Grenville's Efforts to Increase the Revenues

were ordered to reside in the colonies, additional officers were appointed under strict instructions, governors were ordered to give greater attention to the question of revenue, and warships patrolled the coast to watch for smugglers. Naval officers were appointed collectors of customs a little later, and greater use was to be made of "Writs of Assistance" giving the officers the general right to search any ship, warehouse or even residence on suspicion, without specifying the goods sought.

In September, 1764, the "Molasses Act" was superseded by the "Sugar Act," which, while reducing the duty on molasses brought into the British colonies from the French or Spanish West Indies, provided against the common tricks of the smugglers. New duties were levied upon coffee, pimento, indigo, wine, and certain textiles. The importation of foreign rum was prohibited, but the New England colonies were exporters of this beverage, and if they could get cheap raw material wished no protection. The effect of these new administrative regulations, and of the legislation which followed, was such that the remark of a treasury official that "Grenville lost America because he read the American despatches, which none of his predecessors had done" may be accepted as containing much truth.

This act was certain to dislocate colonial trade. England was not the best customer of the northern colonies. The Spanish and French West Indies took their fish, lumber, staves and food products, paying partly in goods and partly in cash. If these markets were destroyed by prohibitive duties, the power of the colonies to buy from England would be greatly reduced, and the supply of specie would soon be ex-

hausted, since the colonies purchased more in England than they exported to English ports, using Spanish and French gold to pay the balances.

The second part of Grenville's policy was to keep a standing army of 10,000 men in America. This seemed to the English officials a necessity, as the Indians had always been more friendly to the French than to the English, and all reports from America indicated increasing sullenness towards the enemies of their former friends, the French. The French settlers in Canada might revolt. The traders and settlers who had crossed the mountains, and were crossing the barriers in larger numbers, were reported to be arousing the animosity of the Indians. As a temporary measure, the "Proclamation of 1763" was issued, assuming control of the territory won from France, and forbidding the separate colonies to grant the land, no matter what their claims under their charters might be. The colonies had, what seems to us now, an unreasonable distrust of a standing army, and this proclamation increased their dislike for Grenville's policy. In 1764, another cause of difference was added when Parliament forbade the colonies to make any further issues of legal tender paper money. This had been one of the points of contention with their governors for many years.

In 1764, Grenville announced his intention of introducing a bill to tax the colonies by means of a stamp duty, un-

less the colonial agents could suggest a better method.

Franklin, in protesting against the tax, pointed out the fact that the colonists had furnished 25,000 men during the war—and that the expense had been ruinous. The disproportionate contribution of the colonies had been recognised by parliament, which had, in fact, voted considerable sums to the colonies because of their excessive expenditure. In spite of these grants, several colonies had large debts incurred on account of the war, and to levy additional taxes would be unjust.

The agents, after consulting with their constituents, were unable to propose any other form of taxation which would be acceptable. The truth is that the colonists were willing to take the

The Effect of the Sugar Act

THE BEGINNINGS OF THE REVOLUTION

risk of depending upon their militia for defense against the Indians, in spite of the fact that the conspiracy of Pontiac (1763-64), was just then being suppressed by regular troops. In fact the discussion in America showed that instead of suggesting another method, a few of the colonists were willing to repudiate the right of Parliament to tax at all. Grenville, believing the tax to be just, and at the same time easy of collection, offered the measure in Parliament, where it was passed with little discussion, March 22, 1765. Few thought for a moment that serious objection would be made.

The Act imposed duties, varying from one-half penny to several pounds upon newspapers, pamphlets, playing cards, licenses, bonds, deeds, wills, land grants, appointments to office, and the like. Advertisements in the newspapers

What Was the Stamp Act?

were taxed separately. The different papers requiring stamps were minutely specified. The penalties for violation were heavy, and cases might be tried in admiralty courts, as experience had shown that the colonial courts could not always be depended upon. It was further specified that the net proceeds of the tax should be a separate fund to be used only for defending and protecting the colonies, that is, by means of a standing army.

Grenville had had his way. Now could he enforce his measures? On the whole they were harder on the trading colonies of the north than upon the agricultural colonies of the south, with perhaps the exception of the Act forbidding further issues of paper money. Always in the development of a new country the cry of the scarcity of money arises. Men who have little of value to export, but who must purchase many things from abroad, must pay for these with specie, and at the same time feel the need of capital to develop their industries at home. The scarcity of specie has often led to the use of commodities as media of exchange. In Virginia and Maryland, tobacco was long the recognised currency. In other colonies, at different times, furs, grains, cattle, sugar, brandy, musket balls and many other things might be used in payment of obligations.

But paper money gradually became in all the colonies the recognised means of paying taxes and debts. The prohibition of further issues was regarded as a great wrong, particularly by the debtor classes.

The Stamp Act was received with indignation and bitter protests in the colonies. It was claimed on the one hand

How the Stamp Act Was Received

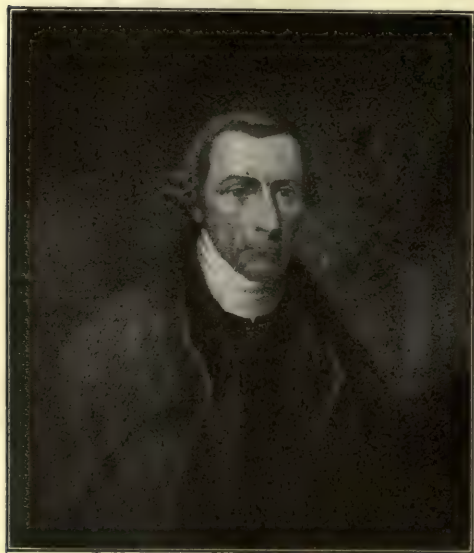
that on account of the lack of specie, the duties could not be paid, and on the other that it was an unjust tax beyond the power of Parliament to levy. The protestants when reminded that they had paid import duties (if they could not be avoided) without denying their "legality," drew a distinction between "external" and "internal" taxes. Duties on imports were "external" taxes, while the Stamp Act levied "internal" taxes, which could not be imposed without the consent of those upon whom they were levied. Since the colonies were not represented in Parliament, that consent had not been given, and the taxes were therefore illegal.

To the Englishman this argument seemed far-fetched and had little weight. It was the English theory that every member of Parliament represented the whole kingdom, and the British colonies as well. There was no consistent basis of representation in Parliament. Some of the members were elected from the counties, but the greater number from boroughs which had in times past been given the right to return a member or members. Some of these towns had decayed, and were practically uninhabited. On the other hand, large cities had grown up which elected no members. In the colonies, on the other hand, the basis of representation was almost exclusively territorial. A man was chosen by the voters of a particular county, or a particular town, and therefore was the direct representative of that civil division in the assembly. The colonists would not agree that they were represented in Parliament by men in whose election they had no voice. The fact that the large new towns in England were not represented did not alter the case as the colonists saw it. That was an injustice which concerned the inhabitants of those towns, and did not affect their case.

The Virginia Assembly took the lead,

and under the influence of Patrick Henry resolved, May 29, 1765, "that the General Assembly of this colony have the only and sole exclusive right and power to levy taxes and impositions upon the inhabitants of the colony." On June 8, Massachusetts called upon the colonies to send delegates to New York to make representations to King and Parliament. Various assemblies,

Virginia
Begins Active
Opposition



PATRICK HENRY

Patrick Henry, of Virginia, was radical from the beginning of the contest with Great Britain. After the Revolution, he opposed the adoption of the Constitution, because of the power given the central government. In his old age he became more conservative and was even classed as a Federalist.

cities and town meetings, and other civil divisions, protested vigorously.

Representatives from nine colonies met in the Stamp Act Congress, October 7, 1765, and the four colonies not represented indicated their approval of the purpose of the meeting. A "Declarations of the Rights and Grievances of the Colonies in America" was drawn up, and separate petitions were addressed to King, Lords and Commons. The Declaration set forth boldly, together with a protest against the Sugar Act, some fundamental principles, declaring that the colonists were "intituled to all the inherent rights and liberties of his (the King's) natural-born subjects within the kingdom of Great Britain," that it was the "undoubted right of Englishmen

that no taxes be imposed on them but with their own consent, given personally, or by their representatives;" that the colonists "are not, and from their local circumstances, cannot be represented in the House of Commons in Great Britain; and that the only representatives of the people of these colonies are persons chosen therein by themselves, and that no taxes ever have been, or can be constitutionally imposed on them, but by their respective legislatures."

Nor did the people stop with formal protests. When the bill had been before Parliament, Colonel Isaac Barré—one of

The Sons
of Liberty
Become Active

the men for whom Wilkes Barré was afterwards named—made a vigorous speech in opposition, in which he called the Americans "Sons of Liberty." The phrase spread like wild-fire in America. Loose organisations calling themselves "Sons of Liberty" sprang up everywhere. The members were generally working-men who had little direct interest in the Stamp Act, but in their opposition was concentrated their irritation at all the measures which they believed injurious to the colonies; the Sugar Act, together with stricter enforcement of the customs, which raised the price of rum, tea and other articles; the prohibitions of further issues of paper money, which they thought certain to lower wages; and the Proclamation of 1763, which seemed to take away from the colonists the western lands for which they had fought. Undoubtedly some leaders were demagogues, who hoped to gain popular favour by their course, and some of their followers were of that class which has always furnished members for mobs, but the great majority was made up of sturdy citizens, who felt that their rights and privileges were being violated.

In Massachusetts, the Sons of Liberty burned the newly appointed Stamp Master and Lord Bute in effigy, and sacked

The Colonists Resist
the Enforcement
of the Law

the house of Chief Justice Hutchinson. In North Carolina they forced the stamp officer to resign, and swore all the officials to disregard the law. In Connecticut the stamps were seized and burned. In all the colonies, so much pressure was brought to bear upon those appointed to



"GIVE ME LIBERTY, OR GIVE ME DEATH": PATRICK HENRY'S FAMOUS SPEECH

The passage of the Stamp Act by the British Parliament caused great excitement in the colonies. The colonists claimed that a tax of this kind could not be imposed without their consent, and many meetings of protest were held in the various colonies. In the Virginia Assembly, Patrick Henry, a young lawyer, made a dramatic speech of protest, and was able to force through the Assembly resolutions denying the right of Parliament to tax America without her consent. A second and later speech, advocating separation from Great Britain, was made in St. John's Church in Richmond, a very plain and simple edifice, not a noble hall as here shown. The church, somewhat enlarged, is still standing in Richmond.

distribute the stamps, that nearly all had resigned before November 1, 1765, which was the date on which the Act was to go into effect. On the day appointed, bells were tolled and flags were flown at half mast. In only two colonies were any stamps used. Many sections of the Act were ignored, but courts were generally closed, and customs officials would not allow ships to depart without stamped clearance papers. Trade, therefore, was practically at a standstill. Merchants signed "non-importation agreements," and neglected to pay debts owed to English merchants. The effect of the boycott of British manufactures was soon felt by the mercantile class in Great Britain.

Meanwhile Grenville had been succeeded as Prime Minister by the Marquess of Rockingham, whose cabinet contained several strong friends of the colonies. The British merchants made strong representations of the injury to trade caused by the Act, and all the papers were laid before Parliament. The government had been much surprised at the excitement in the colonies. Strong opposition to repeal was manifested, some of which was overcome by the speeches of William Pitt, who accepted the colonial distinction between "external" and "internal" taxation. After exciting debate, the Act was repealed (March, 1766), but the colonial contention of the existence of a distinction between "external" and "internal" taxation was not acknowledged. With the repeal of the Stamp Act was passed the "Declaratory Act" maintaining the authority of Parliament to pass statutes binding the colonies "in all cases whatsoever." A little later, some of the duties in the Sugar Act were reduced or repealed.

The repeal was received with rejoicing in America, and little attention was paid to the "Declaratory Act," since the main point had been gained. Statutes of the King and of Pitt were erected, and it seemed that trouble was over.

But for the stubbornness of the King and some of his favourites, a way out of the difficulty might have been found. Up to this time, there had been in the colonies little expression of the desire for com-

plete independence. Wise statesmanship might have healed the break, and the Revolution might have been long postponed or possibly averted altogether. But wise statesmanship was rare in England then, when George III was making every endeavour to strengthen the royal prerogative. In this effort he used threats, cajolery and even bribery to build up a strong party of the "King's Friends" in Parliament, and for a time succeeded.

The ministry which had repealed the Stamp Act fell during the same year. Charles Townshend, who, as First Lord of Trade in 1763, had presented a scheme for the closer supervision of the colonists, became Chancellor of the Exchequer in the ministry of the Duke of Grafton. On his own responsibility, in 1767, he presented to Parliament a measure for taxing America. Mockingly he said that he had accepted the colonists at their own word. They had recognised the authority of Parliament to levy "external" taxes, and the taxes he proposed were import duties on glass, red and white lead, painter's colours, paper and tea, all of them "external" taxes. The measure was quickly passed.

The proceeds of the tax were to be used to pay the salaries of governors and judges in the colonies, thus making them independent of the assemblies, and Writs of Assistance were expressly legalised. Supplementary acts provided for the appointment of a board of revenue commissioners charged with the enforcement of all the Trade Acts, and suspended the New York Assembly until it made proper provision for the troops quartered in New York City. By the Quartering Act of 1765, it had been made the duty of the colonies to provide proper quarters for the troops sent to them, and this the New York Assembly had refused to do. Not until 1769 was the Assembly allowed to meet.

There was less outward resistance to the enforcement of the Townshend Acts than there had been to the Stamp Act, but discontent was widespread. The appointment of the revenue commissioners meant that smuggling was to be made more difficult, and this meant not only smaller profits for the merchants, but

**Trouble
Apparently
Averted**

**The
Townshend
Acts**

THE BEGINNINGS OF THE REVOLUTION

higher prices for goods. If the New York Assembly could be suspended, then any colony could be deprived of its legislature. Moreover, if governors and judges were to be made financially independent, the colonists lost one of their strongest weapons. They had often been able to influence the governor by delaying to pass supply bills, until he had given his consent to measures pressed by the colonial assemblies. If salaries were to be paid from a permanent fund, this form of pressure could no longer be exerted. Then, too, it was believed that these duties were only an entering wedge. Greater exactions were to follow.

Opinion had moved on, and an increasing number of the colonists recognised that the distinction between "external" and "internal" taxes was untenable. Franklin said that further consideration had led him to believe that "no middle doctrine can well be maintained. I mean not clearly with intelligible arguments. Something might be made of either of the extremes: that Parliament has a power to make all laws for us, that it has a power to make no laws for us; and I think the arguments for the latter more numerous and weighty than those for the former."

The Acts were put into force and some revenue was collected, though at an excessive cost. Non-importation agreements were adopted in America and had considerable influence, though they were naturally broken. Smuggling continued in spite of the greater watchfulness of the customs officers. In Boston, when the customs officials seized a vessel belonging to John Hancock, a wealthy merchant, a riot ensued and the officials fled to the fort. Townshend died soon after the passage of the Acts which bear his name, but George III enthusiastically adopted the policy as his own, and the ministry were obedient to his will. Further irritating restrictions were to follow.

Early in 1768 the Massachusetts Assembly sent a petition to the King, and presented its case to various members of the government. A few weeks later a circular letter, drafted by Samuel Adams, was adopted

**Massachusetts
Presents a
Seditious Protest**

and sent to the assemblies of the other colonies. Here was set forth the claim that the colonies could not be taxed without their consent, and protest was made against the financial independence of colonial officials, the appointment of revenue commissioners and the Quartering Act. This paper was pronounced seditious by the ministry, and another step was taken toward coercion. Instructions were sent to all the governors to adjourn the assemblies if any action on the circular was proposed. The Massachusetts Assembly was ordered to revoke the document, but refused. The Virginia Assembly approved the action of Massachusetts, and was promptly dissolved. Parliament passed a vote of censure on Massachusetts, and it was suggested that political offenders might be sent to England for trial. Evidently compromise was becoming more and more difficult.

When the cargo already mentioned had been forcibly landed in Boston without paying duty, the customs officials asked for troops, and two regiments were sent. The relations between the soldiers and the populace were unpleasant from the beginning. The former were arrogant and inconsiderate, but, on the other hand, were constantly subjected to insult. No actual clash occurred until March 5, 1770, when some soldiers, attacked with snowballs and sticks, were sent back to the barracks by their captain. The same evening, a crowd was engaged in teasing a sentry in front of the barracks. Captain Preston with seven privates came out to quell the disturbance, but the mob continued to pelt them with snowballs and to dare them to fire. Probably without orders, seven guns were fired. Four members of the crowd were killed and seven were wounded. This was the so-called "Boston Massacre."

Immediately the soldiers were arrested, and a great town meeting demanded the removal of the regiments from the city proper. The governor was forced to agree, and the regiments were transferred to Castle William in the harbour. The soldiers who had been arrested were brought to trial on the charge of murder after a delay of several months when passion had had an oppor-

tunity to cool. All but two were acquitted, and these received slight punishment.

Meanwhile the effects of the non-importation agreements in England, and the great expense of enforcing the Townshend Acts, added to the fact that a considerable element in Parliament acknowledged the justice of the claims of the

already mentioned in connection with the phrase "Sons of Liberty," a brave soldier, who had been wounded with Wolfe at Quebec, warned Parliament in the most solemn terms that America would be lost if the policy of the ministry were not changed, but the ministry, that is to say the King, could not be convinced of the danger, though a clumsy effort to es-



THE BOSTON MASSACRE: FROM PAUL REVERE'S ENGRAVING

This quaint picture of the Boston Massacre was made from a very old print engraved by Paul Revere who later carried the news of the British march on Lexington and Concord to the farmers along the road. We must confess that Revere, who was a goldsmith in Boston, was more successful as a messenger than as an artist. He became a prominent citizen of Boston, grew rich and had great influence in politics.

colonies, led to long discussion of American affairs both in the Commons and outside. Some opposed any compromise, and denounced the colonists in unmeasured terms. A typical statement of the time was that of Dr. Samuel Johnson, who said that the Americans "ought to be thankful for anything we allow them short of hanging." The colonists did not lack defenders, however. Colonel Barré,

came from the existing deadlock was made.

On the very day of the Boston Massacre, March 5, 1770, Lord North, now Prime Minister, moved the repeal of all the Townshend taxes, except the duty on tea. This was to be kept to assert the principle of Parliamentary taxation. At once the non-importation

**Lord North's
Attempt to
Conciliate**

THE BEGINNINGS OF THE REVOLUTION

agreements in the colonies were weakened. The merchants of New York, tired of seeing their empty shelves, ordered large quantities of every sort of merchandise except tea, much to the disgust of the more radical colonies. The example of New York was generally followed. Tea was smuggled from Holland, for those who would not do without, but there were many who pledged themselves not to touch the beverage until it was freed from tax. Taxation for the sake of revenue had apparently been given up, but the principle of Parliamentary taxation was maintained.

For several years American affairs were hardly discussed in Parliament, and if the King and his ministers had pursued a more conciliatory policy, colonial loyalty, which had been shaken by years of agitation, might have been regained. Suspicion and bitterness had been implanted in the minds of many, however, and the colonists had gained self-confidence through their success in forcing the repeal of the most obnoxious acts. A few men, like Samuel Adams of Massachusetts, were definitely committed to independence, but in 1770 few were ready to follow him to such lengths. In every colony there were three parties. The first was composed partly of the official class, partly of the parasites who had fastened themselves on the civil list, but more largely of the richer and more conservative members of the community, who had in the past been accustomed to exercise great influence in colonial affairs. These men were alarmed by the rioting and disorder which had accompanied the opposition to the earlier measures of the British government and preferred government by a King to government by a mob, as they saw it.

There was on the other hand a small band of radicals, some of them men of education and position, others belonging to the class which had had little voice in colonial government. Some had reached their conclusions through theoretical discussions of the "rights of man." Some were demagogues. Others, who had lived on the frontier where a man's own exertions determined his survival, or else were of the less important

part of the population of the towns, felt little loyalty to a King across the seas, and did feel antagonism to the oligarchy, or aristocracy, near the seacoast which had controlled in nearly every colony. This last factor must not be overlooked. Many men in opposing the British Parliament were really striking at what they considered oppression nearer home.

The third, and largest party, was made up of men who opposed the measures of the ministry, but were as yet unwilling to defy the Crown and take the consequences. As yet they were not conscious of a philosophy of government. They did not see that Parliament must be supreme, or else that a scheme of federation which should make the assembly of every colony a little parliament, must be the American position. The success of the movement toward independence depended upon securing the favour of this party, for as long as it was loyal to the King, revolution was impossible.

If the King and his satellites had set out to irritate and alienate this most important class, the policy pursued could hardly have been better chosen. From 1770 until 1773, they were careful to avoid general issues, but petty quarrels with the different colonies were frequent. Governors were ordered to adjourn obstinate assemblies. In 1767 the New York Assembly had been suspended by Act of Parliament. Now it was assumed that royal instructions were sufficient for such important action. Governors were instructed to summon assemblies to meet in places inconvenient of access to radical members. Officers were appointed with salaries paid by the Crown, and were thus largely removed from local control. In North Carolina the instructions of Governor Martin required him to secure a change in the court-law passed under Governor Tryon. The Assembly in 1773 refused, and when the governor, acting under his instructions, attempted to establish new courts, the Assembly refused to vote the money necessary to continue them. North Carolina therefore remained without civil courts until after the Declaration of Independence.

The *Gaspee*, a British schooner on the lookout for smugglers, ran aground in

Narragansett Bay, and was burned by a party from Providence. In spite of the offer of large rewards, no one of the party could be discovered by the authorities. In 1772, through the influence of Samuel Adams, a Committee of Correspondence was appointed in every town in Massachusetts to report on sentiment in the vicinity. The next year Virginia suggested that a central committee be appointed in every colony, to keep the other colonies informed of the general sentiment, and of any oppressive acts of royal officials. These committees were influential in bringing about the final rupture, and in creating an organisation which proved very useful later.

Just at this time, George III was unwise enough to test the temper of the colonies further. Though the tea tax

A Scheme to Aid the East India Company

was still on the statute book, it produced hardly £300 a year in revenue, as the colonists smuggled the greater part of the tea they used. Early in 1773 Lord North presented a scheme to aid the East India Company, which was in financial difficulties, and at the same time induce the colonists to accept the principle of taxation. The company had been paying a heavy duty on all tea brought into England. This duty was to be remitted on all tea sent to America. The colonists would be able therefore to buy tea from the Company, with the 3d. a pound duty added, at a price lower than tea smuggled from Holland could be sold, and in fact more cheaply than the people of England themselves could buy it. Moreover it was determined not to wait for the colonial merchants to order tea, but to send it to them. Ships were sent to Boston, New York, Philadelphia and Charleston and agents were appointed to receive the cargoes. Both ministry and Parliament seem to have had no doubt but that personal advantage would overcome any colonial scruples as to taxation.

The news of this act created even more excitement than the Stamp Act had done. Those who had been engaged in smuggling opposed the new act, which might destroy their trade. The far-sighted saw the intention of the act, and realised that it was a bribe. If tea were

allowed to come in, the non-importation agreements were bound to fail, and if the tax on this one commodity were paid, it was likely that other taxes would be imposed. The agents in Charleston, Philadelphia and New York were forced to resign, but in Boston they refused to do so. When the tea ships arrived at Philadelphia and New York, they were at once sent back, before they were formally entered. As there was no one in Charleston to receive the tea, it was seized by the collector and stored in damp vaults, where it spoiled. In Boston, the citizens refused to allow the tea to be landed, but Governor Hutchinson would not allow the ships to return to England. On the night of December 16, 1773, fifty men, disguised as Indians, boarded the ships and threw the tea into the harbour. This was the "Boston Tea Party."

The action was received with indignation in England, even by many who had championed the cause of the colonies, though defenders were not entirely lacking. Edmund Burke made one of his greatest speeches against the course of the ministry, and others were quite as vigorous. The general feeling, however, both in and out of Parliament, was that these last acts of defiance amounting to rebellion could not be overlooked. Lord North was able, in 1774, to pass the five "intolerable acts" by large majorities. These closed the port of Boston, forbidding ships to enter or clear until the tea had been paid for; annulled several provisions of the charter of Massachusetts, and provided for absolute control by the Crown; provided that soldiers or officials charged with capital crimes must be sent to other colonies, or to England, for trial; extended the Quartering Act; and extended the Province of Quebec to the Ohio River, ignoring the claims of Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York and Virginia to the territory. Additional troops were sent to Boston to overawe the people.

Response was prompt. Sympathy for Boston, and fear for the future of every colony was felt from New Hampshire to Georgia. Provisions were sent to Boston from every quarter, even from the distant colony of South

A Continental Congress Is Called

The Boston Tea Party



WASHINGTON, HENRY AND PENDLETON ON THEIR WAY TO THE FIRST CONGRESS



THE FIRST PRAYER IN CONGRESS, HELD AT PHILADELPHIA IN 1774

The first mention of a congress for North America was made in 1690 by Jacob Leisler, a suggestion that was renewed before the French and Indian War and later by Benjamin Franklin, who at that time was in London. In 1774 the colony of Virginia proposed that all the other colonies should send representatives to a Congress. The proposal was accepted, and the first Continental Congress met on September 5th, 1774, sitting until October 26th. Delegates from every colony except Georgia were present.

From the painting by Matterson

Carolina. Promise of military assistance came from Virginia. The members of the legislature of that colony, sitting as a convention, called for the selection of delegates to a Continental Congress, the time and place to be fixed by Massachusetts. This colony, in spite of the efforts of General Gage to prevent action, fixed September, 1774, as the time and Philadelphia as the place. Meanwhile public opinion, and the fear of consequences, forced many of the newly appointed officers in Massachusetts to resign. In some towns, courts could not be held by the officials appointed under the "Regulating Act," as the measure revising the charter was called.

The first Continental Congress met at Philadelphia in response to the call, September 5, 1774, and before the end of its sessions every colony except Georgia was represented. The delegates had in a few cases been chosen by the assemblies, in others by conventions, called, of course, without warrant of law, or by "Provincial Congresses." A conservative party suggested the union of the colonies under a president named by the King, and a council of delegates. Parliament might veto acts of the council, but the council could, on the other hand, veto acts of Parliament which were thought unwise, and not suited to colonial conditions. The plan failed of adoption, but a series of "Declarations and Resolves" was voted. These claimed for the colonial assemblies "free and exclusive power of legislation," subject only to the veto of the King "in such manner as has been heretofore used and accustomed." The right of Parliament to legislate in matters of imperial moment was acknowledged, but at the same time, "excluding every idea of taxation, internal or external, for raising a revenue on the subjects in America, without their consent." Grievances were set forth at length and several acts of Parliament, including the Boston Port Act, the Massachusetts Government Act and the Quebec Act were boldly pronounced unconstitutional.

The most important act, however, affecting resistance was the "Association" forbidding commercial intercourse with

Great Britain, or any of her other colonies. To effect this purpose, a committee was to be elected in every county, city and town, whose duty it was "attentively to observe the conduct of all persons touching this association." Names of offenders were to be published for public condemnation, "and thenceforth we respectively will break off all dealings with him or her." As a matter of fact these committees were active and took greater authority upon themselves than merely boycotting offenders. Violence was sometimes used, and tarring and feathering were not uncommon. The Congress further provided for the meeting of a second Congress, May 10, 1775, unless the grievances of the colonies "should be sooner redressed." The "Association" was adopted by all the colonies, except New York and Georgia. In the former the Tory element was strong, and the merchants were opposed. Georgia was torn between factions.

Meanwhile General Gage, far from bringing all Massachusetts into subjection, began, on the very day of the meeting of the Continental Congress (September 5, 1774) to fortify Boston Neck to close the only access to the city by land. He refused to call the Assembly, but the members met as a provincial congress, and appointed a Committee of Safety to collect military stores. A second congress, which met February 1, 1775, organised the militia and designated a part as "minute men" who should be ready at all times. Many of these men were veterans of the French and Indian War. Similar action was taken in other colonies, and the revolutionary committees already mentioned were active.

The "Declaration and Resolves" of the Continental Congress were coldly received in England. William Pitt, now Earl of Chatham, to be sure, offered a bill renouncing the right of taxing the colonies, while asserting the right of regulating commerce, but it was voted down, and both houses of Parliament declared their support of the King and his policy. Massachusetts was declared to be in a state of rebellion, all the ports of New England were to be closed, the army in Boston was increased to 10,000

THE BEGINNINGS OF THE REVOLUTION

men, and Gage was to be superseded by General William Howe, a brother of the popular Lord Howe, who had fallen at Ticonderoga during the French and Indian War. Another brother, Richard, Lord Howe, was appointed Admiral of the Fleet for America. At almost the same time Lord North carried his somewhat vague offer of conciliation (Feb. 27, 1775). It provided that if any colony would assume its due proportion of the fund for defense (to be fixed by King and Parliament), no taxes would be levied in that colony except duties imposed for commercial regulation, and the net proceeds of such duties should be credited to the colony. This was a manifestation of Lord North's famous policy of the "olive branch and the sword."

Before the offer was considered by the colonies conciliation had become impossible. General Gage had received

The Battle of of Lexington and Concord

orders to arrest John Hancock and Samuel Adams, and to send them to England for trial. Knowing that they were in Lexington, Gage sent, on the night of April 18, 1775, 800 troops to arrest them. After performing this duty, the troops were to proceed to Concord and destroy some military stores, which were known to have been placed there. Dr. Joseph Warren, head of the committee of safety, somehow learned of the project, and sent Paul Revere and William Dawes to warn the people. Hancock and Adams easily escaped, but when the advance guard reached Lexington, they found fifty or sixty minute-men drawn up on the Common. Refusing to disperse at the order of Major Pitcairn, a volley was fired and eighteen were killed or wounded. The main column was coming up, and the minute-men after firing a volley or two retreated. It was evident that the country was aroused. The commander sent back for additional troops, hurried to Concord and destroyed that part of the stores which had not been removed.

Before the work was completed, an outpost was attacked and driven back on the main body. The commander, though his men were tired and hungry, began the retreat toward Boston. But now companies of militia hung on their flanks, fired and retreated only to appear

again. Every clump of trees, every out-house, every boulder hid its small band of marksmen, who fired and then hastened by short cuts to overtake the retreating troops. The retreat became a rout, and few would have been able to reach Boston, but for the approach of 1200 fresh men whom Gage had sent to protect them. The increasing force of militia pressed hard all the remaining part of the way to Boston. The British loss was 273, while only 93 Americans had fallen. War had begun.

The list of Americans killed and wounded showed that men from at least twenty-three towns were in the fight before the British reached Boston. Hundreds more were soon on their way from every part of New England, and Gage was besieged in Boston by 16,000 men. Three weeks later (May 10) Fort Ticonderoga was taken by surprise without the loss of a life by a party of Vermont militia, known as "Green Mountain Boys" under Ethan Allen. Crown Point also was captured, and thus 200 cannon and much ammunition fell into American hands.

The news of the contest at Lexington and Concord was rapidly carried in every direction, creating great excitement. The hardy Scotch-Irish of Meck-

The Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence

lenburg County, North Carolina, on May 31, 1775, voted that "the Provincial Congress of each province under the direction of the great Continental Congress is invested with all legislative and executive powers within their respective provinces, and that no other legislative or executive Power does or can exist at this time in any of these colonies."

The Second Continental Congress met the same day which saw the capture of Ticonderoga. As if to show George III how little his proscription counted, John Hancock was chosen as president. Though there was little public discussion of independence, it was decided to adopt the miscellaneous bands of militia around Boston as the Continental army, and to increase the number to 20,000. Colonel George Washington of Virginia was chosen Commander-in-Chief. In the next section, the contest which finally



THE FIRST ENGAGEMENT IN THE AMERICAN WAR FOR INDEPENDENCE



THE HISTORIC STRUGGLE ON CONCORD BRIDGE, APRIL 19th, 1775

The difference between the American colonies and the Mother Country culminated on April 19th, 1775, in an engagement between the colonial and British troops at Lexington. General Gage, Governor of Massachusetts, despatched troops to capture some war material at Concord. The residents had been warned and at Lexington the British troops met a few militiamen who dispersed after a volley. At Concord there was a sharp conflict, but the country was aroused and the troops were forced to make a hasty retreat.

THE BEGINNINGS OF THE REVOLUTION

led to the surrender by England to all claims of jurisdiction over the rebellious colonies will be treated in some detail.

The steps which led to armed conflict have been discussed somewhat fully. Without such examination, the American Revolution cannot be understood. During the French and Indian War, Colonial and Briton fought side by side against a common enemy, and hardly a man even dreamed of independence. Within a little more than ten years, the Americans were willing to risk all for freedom.

Judged by the standards of the day, the American colonies had not been oppressed. The Navigation Acts had been

so framed that the colonial trader and shipowner gained as well as lost, while the Spanish or French colonist always lost. There was not, in any of the schemes of taxation which were presented after the French and Indian War, the intention to take a shilling away from America for the direct benefit of England. As we study the list of grievances which the colonists presented, we see that many were exaggerated, or else arose from suspicion or misunderstanding. The colonies revolted not so much because they had been oppressed as because they had long been so free.

Yet we must say that the colonists were right in rebelling. They or their ancestors had come to the new country, had subdued a part of it, and were struggling to push the frontier westward. Theirs had been the toil, the danger. The English government had done little for them, and the losses of private individuals in founding the early colonies had long since been outlawed. It seemed unfair that their trade should be hampered for the benefit of English merchants and manufacturers.

In the second place, though there were many nations represented in America, English ideas were dominant. The colonial charters generally guaranteed to the settlers the rights of Englishmen, and the history of England for more than 500 years had been a history of resistance to arbitrary power. England was far

beyond any other nation in regarding the rights of the individual, and life in America had sharpened the consciousness of individual rights. Their vigour had been increased through "the hope, the freedom and the changefulness, of their lives." England had not then learned how to govern her new colonial empire. In the nineteenth century we see her enlightened policy granting as a matter of course more than the American colonies asked in the eighteenth. We see her magnificent return both in commercial profit and in loyalty and devotion. She has definitely given up her old commercial policy, and her Dominions even fix import duties on English goods.

Even granting all these facts, the American Revolution would not have come when it did, but for political conditions in England. The attempt of George III to revive the political influence of the Crown, met with some success, owing chiefly to the antiquated basis of parliamentary representation. His determination to increase the royal prerogative, led him and his ministers to irritate the colonists by petty restrictions, which were regarded as tyrannical, and gradually, year by year, to undermine their loyalty.

**George III
Forced the
Revolution**

It must not be understood that all Americans were high-minded, or that questions of personal advantage did not enter. Some of the foremost pre-revolutionary agitators were demagogues, who hoped to gain influence by diminishing the influence of the colonial aristocracy. Inequalities of representation within the colony itself, weighed heavily with some. Other colonists prominent in opposition to the policy of England had grown rich by evasion of the customs laws and resented the reduction of their profits. But these were not enough to make the Revolution, or even to influence the men who really were responsible. The question was deeper, more fundamental. The great mass of the colonists had reached that degree of maturity when old restrictions fettered their lives. The colonists revolted because they were ready for independence.

**The Reason
for the
Revolution**

**The Colonists Fought
for the Rights
of Englishmen**



WASHINGTON AS A YOUNG MAN

The likeness of Washington we usually see is made from the Stuart portraits. This, by Charles Willson Peale, though probably painted in 1778, represents him as a much younger man, before the time when he was made commander of the Continental Army. In later years his expression was much changed, largely, it is said, because of the loss of his teeth.



THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

THE PROGRESS AND FINAL SUCCESS OF THE MOVEMENT FOR INDEPENDENCE

WHEN George Washington was appointed Commander-in-Chief of the Continental Army, he was forty-three years old, in the full vigour of mind and body. While yet a boy in his teens, he had served as a surveyor on the Virginia frontier. When only twenty-one he had been sent by the governor of Virginia as ambassador to the French commander at Fort Le Bœuf. He had served with credit during the French and Indian War and had gained a greater reputation as a soldier than any other American. He was a successful planter, the commander of the Virginia militia. More than all else, he was one whom men instinctively trusted and respected.

Before Washington had arrived at Boston, which the volunteers who had been adopted as the nucleus of an army were besieging, another contest had occurred. The loosely organised and poorly equipped bands which were active

**Additional British
Troops Arrive
in Boston**

under the direction of the local committee of safety saw the British

forces in Boston increased to 10,000 men. With the additional troops came Generals William Howe, Sir Henry Clinton and John Burgoyne, of whom we shall hear more later.

General Gage, now acting as governor of Massachusetts, determined to fortify the heights around Boston, in order to forestall their occupation by the Americans. Apparently learning of this plan, the committee of safety sent 1,200 men to fortify Bunker Hill, on the night of June 16, 1775. The commander of the detachment passed by Bunker Hill and began to throw up entrenchments on Breed's Hill instead. This hillock was near the city, but could less easily be

defended. It was necessary that the British dislodge the force, but instead of cutting it off by landing troops in the rear, it was decided to make a frontal attack immediately. It was thought that the raw, untrained militia would hardly stand against 3,000 of the King's regulars, and that the moral effect of the defeat would discourage the besiegers. The British marched up the hill, but were thrown back by the deadly marksmanship of the Americans. A second assault was also repulsed, but inefficient organisation had provided too little powder for the Americans, and the third assault forced them to retreat. The British had gained their object, but at a loss of about 1050 men, while their opponents had lost only 450. The victory of Bunker Hill, as it is erroneously called, was dearly won.

The army of which Washington took command under the great elm at Cambridge on July 3, 1775, was an army in

**Composition
of the Conti-
nental Army**

name only. The men, fired by the news of the British aggression, had, many of them, come straight from their work, bringing their rifles and powder horns with them. Some of them knew the rudiments of military drill, but others were entirely ignorant of military matters. Men from the different colonies were under local leaders, and with difficulty had been persuaded to accept General Artemas Ward, of Massachusetts, as a sort of senior commander. They had been encamped around Boston for nearly three months, and some were now restless. They had enlisted under town or country organisations for a limited period, and many felt that they were needed at home. For others, the first enthusiasm for war had departed.



THE FAMOUS BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL ON JUNE 17, 1775, IN THE AMERICAN STRUGGLE FOR INDEPENDENCE

The Battle of Bunker Hill was one of the first of the many hard fought battles which marked America's struggle for independence. The Americans threw up rude fortifications on Breed's Hill which threatened the city, and repulsed two attacks upon the works. Their ammunition gave out, and they were forced to retreat by a third assault. Although victory rested with the British, their loss amounted to over 1,000, while that of the Americans was 441. The above picture shows the death of Joseph Warren, the American patriot. He was serving on this occasion as a volunteer aid to the commander. His death was much lamented.



THE AMERICAN ATTACK ON QUEBEC IN 1775: THE DEATH OF GENERAL MONTGOMERY IN LEADING THE ASSAULT

The American attack on Quebec occurred on the last night of the year 1775, when in a bitter wind General Montgomery and his men made for the lower corner of the town. At the Prés de Ville barrier they were stopped by the discharge of a battery, Montgomery and a dozen others falling dead in the snow, and the remainder flying for their lives into the darkness.

From the painting by J. Trumbull

Uniforms, guns, powder, all military supplies were lacking, particularly cannon. The army had been fed chiefly by the contributions of New England colonies, but obviously this condition could not last. It was good raw material for an army, but it was not an army, and could not be until better organised and better disciplined.

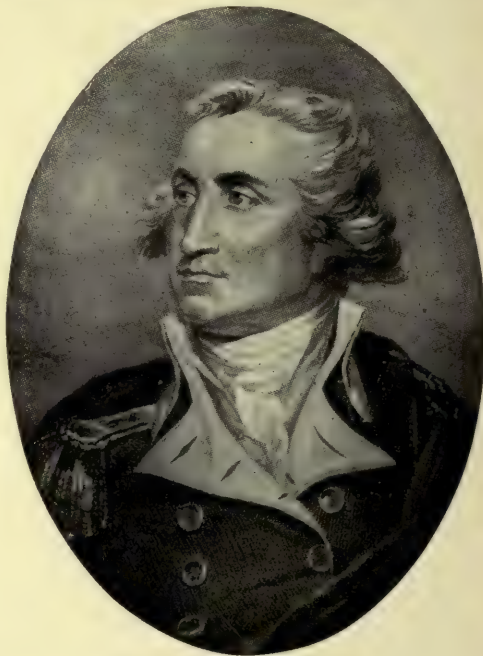
Fortunately Howe was content to remain within Boston, while Washington drilled his men, now reinforced by 3,000 from Pennsylvania, Maryland and Virginia. Later men came from other colonies, but not enough to make good the loss of those whose terms had expired. Meanwhile it was reported that Sir Guy Carleton was planning an invasion of New York from Canada, and it was determined to forestall him. One column under General Richard Montgomery, a former British officer, proceeded by way of Lake Champlain and took Montreal, November 12, 1775. Another column of 1200 men under Benedict Arnold, of Connecticut, and Daniel Morgan, of Virginia, set out through the Maine wilderness to take Quebec. Only 700 reached the St. Lawrence. After they were joined by the forces of Montgomery, an unsuccessful assault was made on the night of December 31st. Montgomery was killed, Arnold wounded and Morgan taken prisoner.

The Congress had begun as the adviser of the colonies, rather than as the directing force, but it was soon forced to take greater responsibilities.

Functions of the Continental Congress

Though it sent a petition to the King, it rejected Lord North's plan of conciliation, and recommended that Massachusetts form a state government. Later the same advice was given to other colonies. It voted to raise an army, and to create a navy. It assumed control of the Indians, prohibited the slave-trade and opened the ports of the colonies to foreign trade. It voted to issue \$2,000,000 in paper money, and took over the post office. In other words, it assumed some of the powers which Great Britain had exercised, and the exercise of which had led to the rupture. All of these it did, without authority, while the members still claimed to be British subjects, and the colonies acquiesced.

Meanwhile Washington had been collecting cannon for the purpose of occupying Dorchester Heights, which, for some unaccountable reason, General Howe had neglected to hold. On the night of March 4, 1776, Washington took possession of the hills with 2,000 men. The position commanded the city, and, rather than attempt to take it by



GEORGE WASHINGTON

The greatest figure in the American War of Independence displayed remarkable powers of leadership as commander-in-chief of the Continental army, and in spite of defeats, led his forces to ultimate triumph. In 1789 he was elected the first president of the United States of America and served until 1797.

storm, Howe evacuated Boston and went to Halifax on March 17th. He was allowed to go without being molested, as he had threatened to burn the town if fired upon. With him went many Loyalists, the first to leave their homes. Washington, foreseeing that New York would next be attacked, transferred the greater part of the army to that place and began to fortify the city and the vicinity.

While New England was thus aroused, the South was not quiet. In North Carolina the royal governor, Josiah Martin, had found it advisable to take refuge on the British sloop of war *Cruiser* then lying off Wilmington. The third Provincial Congress

Attempts to Take North Carolina

THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

met in August, 1775, formed a government, voted to raise 4,000 men, provided for better organisation of the militia, and, of course, issued paper money. Though the eastern and western sections of the province were of one mind, a strong Loyalist element lay between. This was composed largely of Highland Scots, who had come after Culloden (1746). Among them were the celebrated Flora MacDonald and her husband.

These Scots had not forgotten their oaths of allegiance, and had not been long enough in America to feel the American grievances to the full. They were now to be used to capture North Carolina for the King, according to Governor Martin's plan. Sir Henry Clinton, with 2,000 men was to come from Boston to Wilmington, there to be joined by Sir Peter Parker and Lord Cornwallis with seven regiments and ten ships of war from England. Meanwhile the Highlanders were to march down the Cape Fear River to meet the regulars. Sixteen hundred of them under Donald MacDonald, a kinsman of Flora, were met at Moore's Creek Bridge, February 27, 1776, by a smaller force of militia under Richard Caswell, later to be chosen the first governor of the state. The Highlanders were defeated in a sharp engagement, and 850 men, 1,500 rifles and £15,000 in gold were taken. Within a week 10,000 militia were under arms, and Clinton did not attempt to land. North Carolina was freed from danger for the time.

On the arrival of the fleet, Clinton and Parker sailed for Charleston, hoping to break up the revolutionary government there. A rude fort of palmetto logs had been built upon an island in the harbour, and was defended by Colonel William Moultrie with 1,200 men, while several thousand militia occupied the town. An attempt to storm the fort failed, and in an artillery duel nine of the ships were badly shattered. The expedition sailed away to New York without further attempt to take the town.

Only a few weeks after the battle of Moore's Creek, the Provincial Congress of North Carolina met, and on April 12, 1776, resolved "that the delegates of

this colony be empowered (sic) to concur with the delegates of the other colonies in declaring independency." Though North Carolina was the first to declare formally for independence, Virginia soon followed, May 14th, by instructing her delegates "to propose to that respectable body to declare the United colonies free and independent states." In accordance with these instructions, Richard Henry Lee of Virginia, on June 7th, offered in Congress a resolution "that these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be free and independent states." The resolution was seconded by John Adams of Massachusetts.

Opposition developed, chiefly among the delegates from the Middle Colonies, who declared that public sentiment in these colonies was not yet ripe. In Pennsylvania, the influence of the Penn connection was strongly opposed, and many Quakers were disposed to declare the matter one with which lovers of peace had no concern. The position of New York was difficult. In population it was only seventh, that population was by no means homogeneous, and yet its situation laid it open to attack by sea, or from Canada. Moreover, the Six Nations were restless, and it was known that the powerful influence of Sir John Johnson, the son of Sir William Johnson, would be exerted in favour of Great Britain. It was decided in Congress to postpone a vote for three weeks in order that delegates might receive further instructions from their constituents.

One by one the colonies declared for independence. Some were doubtful, but recognised the desirability of united action. Some, as Maryland, were reluctant. That colony, for example, had suffered little hardship, and the proprietary governor was exceedingly popular. The people felt, however, that the interests of the colonists were "inseparably interwoven and linked together" and voted for independence. This was the twelfth colony to instruct its delegates. New York was still discussing the question when the first of July arrived.

On that date, Richard Henry Lee's resolution was taken up in committee of

**South Carolina
is Next
Attacked**



INDEPENDENCE HALL, SHOWING THE CHAIRS AND PORTRAITS OF THE SIGNERS

The plain building which sheltered the first American Congress was the scene of the signing of the Declaration of Independence. The portraits on the wall are those of the signers, and the chairs those which were then used on that occasion. In this room also Washington was appointed commander-in-chief of the Continental Army. Independence Hall is now kept as a museum of historical relics. It was outside this building that the Declaration was announced to the public, as is shown in another picture.

the whole. Some delegates wished to adopt a scheme of government before taking the irrevocable step. Others were anxious to form an alliance with France or Spain. The fact that the colonies were actually in rebellion was obvious and the conditions would not admit of further delay. Nine colonies voted in favour of the resolution. New York was excused, the delegates present from Delaware were evenly divided, and only Pennsylvania and South Carolina voted in the negative. The next day, in regular session, Delaware, Pennsylvania and South Carolina also voted in the affirmative. Therefore July 2nd is really the day upon which independence was declared.

A committee had already been appointed to draft a suitable declaration and had been at work. This consisted of Thomas Jefferson, of Virginia, John Adams of Massachusetts, Benjamin Franklin of Pennsylvania,

Roger Sherman of Connecticut, and Robert Livingston of New York. The actual composition was entrusted to Thomas Jefferson. The draft submitted by the committee was adopted with a few changes by twelve colonies, July 4, 1776, which has come to be accepted as the birthday of the nation. New York voted to adopt the Declaration July 9th, and the formal action of the colonies was now unanimous.

Many legends have grown up about the occasion, and it may be worth while to correct a popular misconception here. The Declaration as promulgated bore only the signatures of the president and the secretary of the Congress. It was voted to have a copy engrossed on parchment. This was presented on August 2nd and signed by all the members present, including the delegates from New York. A few absentees signed later, one as late as November. It is therefore incorrect to speak of July 4, 1776, as the date on which the Declaration of Inde-

The Declaration
of
Independence



THE COMMITTEE PRESENTING THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE TO CONGRESS

When the Continental Congress voted that the colonies "are and of a right ought to be free and independent states," five men were appointed to draft a Declaration of Independence. They were Benjamin Franklin, Thomas Jefferson, Robert Livingston, Roger Sherman and John Adams. Here they present their completed work which was written by Jefferson.



ANNOUNCING THE DECLARATION TO THE PEOPLE OF PHILADELPHIA

After the Declaration had been adopted by Congress it was announced to the people of Philadelphia, who had assembled in the grounds of the State House now known to Americans as Independence Hall. Many legends have grown up around the incident.

pendence was signed, though proper to say that it was adopted on that day.

In the Declaration there is little that was new. Philosophers and statesmen had discussed questions of government for two thousand years.

The Declaration of Independence Not New Ideas and even phrases taken from some of the

earlier students of human rights may be identified in the document itself. Its novelty lies in the crystallisation in one instrument, and the adoption at one time. There are five fundamental

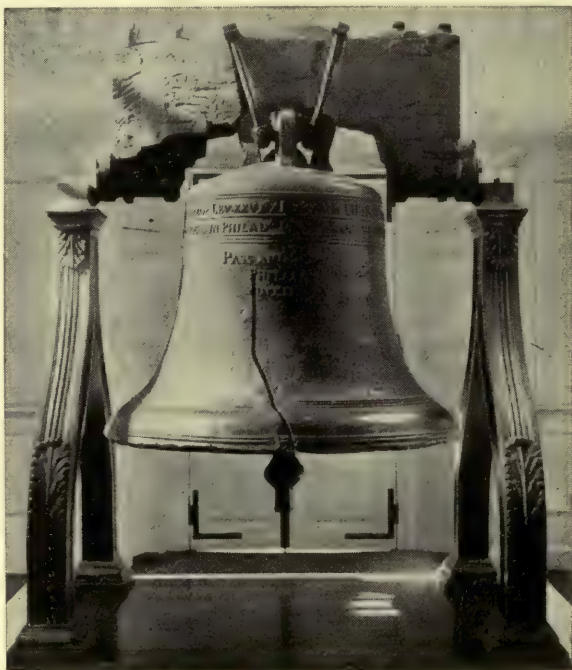
ideas which make the foundation of the document, and upon which American political philosophy of the time was based. They are: (1) the doctrine of the equality of men before the law; (2) of inalienable rights; (3) that the origin of government is a compact; (4) that governments rest upon the consent of the governed; (5) the right of revolution.

The colonists, or a part of them, were now boldly launched upon a course which must end in victory or submission. The difficulties were many. The population of Great Britain and Ireland was not much less than 10,000,000; that of the colonies hardly 3,000,000, including 500,000 negro slaves. Generally the population of Great Britain was united, for the firm friends of the colonies could not support them in rebellion. In America, the British colonies, other than the thirteen, did not join the revolt and were generally out of sympathy with it. Unanimity was lacking in the revolting colonies. It has been estimated that

one-third of the population was Loyalist, and among these were many men of force and influence. Of these Tories, as they were called, some bore arms openly against the Whigs, as the independence party called themselves. Others engaged in guerilla warfare, or furnished information to the British officers. Still others took no active part, but followed the policy of passive resistance.

Great Britain had begun to develop manufactures, and could draw upon the markets of the world. The commercial

policy of Great Britain had discouraged manufacturing in the colonies, and they had little money with which to buy military supplies abroad. In these days, when armies are counted in millions, the numbers engaged seem trifling. Congress in 1777 called for an army of 80,000 men, but the highest number enrolled was 35,000, and generally it was much lower. In addition, the militia served for short terms, or perhaps only when their particular neighbourhood was



THE BELL THAT DECLARED INDEPENDENCE

Hung in the dome of the old State House, Philadelphia, this bell announced the adoption of the Declaration of Independence. Brought from England in 1752, it was, owing to an accident in transit, recast in Philadelphia, when the words "Proclaim liberty throughout all the land unto all the inhabitants thereof" were inscribed on it.

invaded. In some of the most important battles, Washington had less than 10,000 men. The British forces averaged, after 1776, perhaps 40,000 men, including a considerable number of German mercenaries, hired from six German states. These were sold to George III by their princes, and were usually called Hessians, as the majority came from Hesse-Cassel and Hesse-Hanau. They were good soldiers and generally well led. Fortunately the King did not realise the seriousness of the struggle, and sent too

*Tacsimiles of the Signatures to the Declaration of Independence July 4, 1776.
from Binns' Celebrated Engraving.*

John Penn John Hancock John Hart
Wm Lloyd Wm Hooper Wm Adams
Geo Read Wm Hooper Geo Lymer
Step. Hopkins Tho Nelson
Charles Carroll of Carroll Md. Bridge Gerry
Tho M. Kean Roger Sherman Sam^r Huntington
Wm Whipple Thomas Lynch Jun^r
Geo Taylor Josiah Bartlett Benj Franklin
Wm Williams Rich Stockton John Morton
Oliver Wolcott Jas Witherspoon G. W. Tross
Tho Stone Samuel Chase Robt Treat Paine
George Wythe Matthew Thornton
Fran^s Lewis Th Jefferson Min^r Harrison
Lewis Morris Abra Clark Chas. Livingston
Arthur Middleton Fra^s Hopkinson
Geo Walton Carter Braxton James Wilson
Richard Henry Lee Tho Weyward Jun^r
Benjamin Rush John Adams Robt Morris
Symon Hall Joseph Hewes Button Gwinnett
Francis Lightfoot Lee
William Ellery Edward Rutledge Jas Smith

"Department of State, 19th April 1898 I certify that this is a CORRECT COPY of the original Declaration of Independence deposited at this Department, and that I have compared all the signatures with those of the original and have found them EXACT IMITATIONS." John Quincy Adams

THE SIGNERS OF THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

As told in the text, the Declaration of Independence was not signed on July 4, 1776, though it was adopted on that date. The official copy was signed by the members present, August 2, 1776, though some absentees signed later. The official copy bears the signatures of the delegates from New York who did not vote for the Declaration, as their state did not instruct in favour of independence until July 9. On the other hand, not all who voted for the Declaration signed. For example, Robert Livingston, one of the committee which drafted the Declaration, was called to duties in New York and never signed. Thomas McKean, of Delaware, was present on July 4, but absent later and was permitted to sign in 1781.

Some of the men who signed the Declaration were later prominent under the Confederation and the Constitution. Others were not heard from afterward. Some were old and died before the Constitution was adopted. We see the names of John Adams and Thomas Jefferson, later Presidents of the United States. Benjamin Franklin was useful before and after the Declaration. John Hancock was prominent in Massachusetts, afterward as well as before. Samuel Adams, the great agitator, signed the Declaration, but was inclined to oppose the Constitution, though his opposition was not active. Benjamin Harrison was the father of President William Henry Harrison, who was in turn the grandfather of President Benjamin Harrison. Charles Carroll is said to have added the descriptive phrase "of Carrollton" to his name in order that there might be no confusion if the signers should be proscribed by Great Britain. James Wilson led the fight for the adoption of the Constitution in Pennsylvania. Richard Henry Lee did his utmost to prevent Virginia from adopting the Constitution, but nevertheless became United States Senator, and a strong supporter of the new government. Benjamin Rush, of Pennsylvania, was a noted physician of his day, and wrote much upon medicine and other subjects. Robert Morris was the financier of the Revolution, and also held office under the Confederation.

few men in the beginning. When he began to appreciate the difficulties, Great Britain was engaged in European wars, and could not exert her full strength in America.

We left Washington fortifying New York in June. On the twenty-fifth of that month, General Howe arrived from Halifax and landed his troops on Staten Island. His brother, Lord Howe, came with a powerful fleet on July 12, and soon Sir Henry Clinton returned from the unsuccessful southern expedition already mentioned. The British force now amounted to over 30,000 men, while Washington had less than 20,000, many of them militia, with which to oppose him. He laboured under the further disadvantage of being obliged to defend several points some distance apart. Manhattan Island was indefensible, unless the rivers could be blocked, and Brooklyn Heights on Long Island commanded the city. Governor's Island also seemed important.

The Howes had been authorised to negotiate with the rebels, though, of course, they could not recognise Congress. After a fruitless attempt to find someone else with whom they could parley, General Howe landed 20,000 men on Long Island, where General Israel Putnam, with 9,000 men, occupied Brooklyn Heights and some advanced positions to the east. The overwhelming superiority of the British enabled them to make both frontal and flank attacks on the advanced line east of Brooklyn Heights proper, on August 27, and after some heavy fighting the Americans retired within their works with a loss of 250 killed and wounded and 900 prisoners. This was called the Battle of Long Island, and the result of the battle greatly disappointed the Americans.

Bunker Hill had made Howe wary of storming intrenched positions, and he

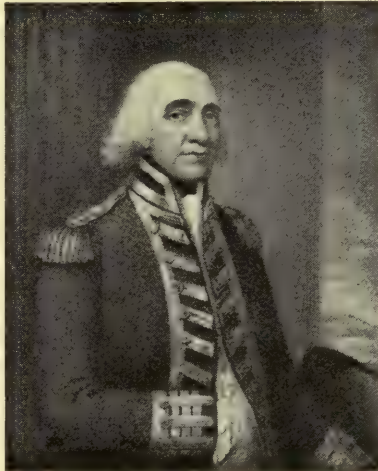
therefore began siege operations. As American batteries on both banks seemed to control the East River, he could not cut the force on Brooklyn Heights off from Manhattan without danger of great loss to his ships. Washington realising the fact that he could not permanently hold his position, gathered every boat within reach and during the night of August 29th ferried every man and all his stores over the East River to New York. There he remained watching Howe, who had expected him to evacuate the city immediately. The withdrawal from Brooklyn Heights enabled

British ships to venture up the East River, and it was soon evident that New York could not be held.

On September 15, Howe commenced to land his force at Kip's Bay, at the end of what is now East Thirty-fourth street, and Washington accordingly withdrew to the northern part of the island, with the loss of a considerable part of his stores and guns. A line was formed across the island, and at Harlem Heights, the next day, a sharp skirmish occurred on and around the present site of Columbia University. The British were at first driven back,

but the approach of reinforcements compelled the Americans to retire to their lines. Howe then determined to try his favourite flanking movement. The Hudson River was defended by Fort Washington, on the New York side, and Fort Lee, on the New Jersey side, but the East River was no longer defended. Howe accordingly passed through Hell Gate and landed at Throg's Neck on the mainland, forcing Washington to withdraw to White Plains. There an indecisive engagement took place, October 28th, and Washington retired to a strong position at North Castle.

Howe hesitated to attack and moved down the Hudson, so that he could either

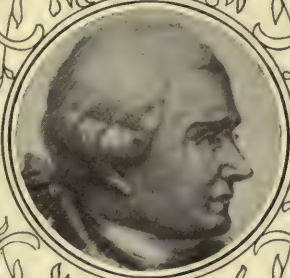


ADMIRAL LORD HOWE

During the American War of Independence, Admiral Lord Howe maintained British prestige on the sea. His brother, Sir William Howe, commanded the land forces for three years, after which he returned to England. Their brother had been killed at Ticonderoga during the French and Indian War, fighting bravely.



LAFAYETTE



ROCHAMBEAU



STEBEN



KOSCIUSZKO



BURGOYNE



HOWE



CLINTON



CORNWALLIS



TARLETON

FOREIGN GENERALS IN THE REVOLUTION

Lafayette and Rochambeau were brave Frenchmen who fought for the United States. Baron Steuben, a brave German officer, and Kosciuszko, a gallant Pole, also helped the American cause. General Burgoyne surrendered at Saratoga in 1777, while General Sir William Howe and Sir Henry Clinton found that conquering America was hard work. Lord Cornwallis was a good officer, but was forced to surrender his entire army. Tarleton was a British cavalry leader.

threaten Philadelphia or attack Fort Washington, which had been unwisely retained when the main forces left Manhattan Island, since it had been shown that the two forts could not prevent the passing of British warships. Washington moved with a part of his army across the river, leaving 7,000 men under Charles Lee at North Castle. He had given General Nathanael Greene discretionary orders to evacuate Fort Washington, as it had been found that the guns were not heavy enough to command the river. Congress, fearing the loss of the Hudson, ordered Greene to hold it if possible, and Howe was able to take the fort and 3,000 of the best men in the Continental army. Fort Lee on the New Jersey side, with valuable stores, was necessarily abandoned. The line of the Hudson was abandoned. To the north Benedict Arnold, after his failure to take Quebec, had retreated slowly, resisting desperately, and prevented Sir Guy Carleton from taking Ticonderoga, thereby preventing British invasion from the north during 1776, but the whole of the Hudson was abandoned.

Charles Lee, a former British officer, was now next to Washington in rank, and was plotting for the chief command.

**Charles Lee
Hopes for
Washington's Defeat**

He, therefore, failed to obey Washington's peremptory orders to join him. Washing-

ton was forced to retreat through New Jersey, and on the discouraging march many of the militia, whose terms had expired, went home. The little army which crossed the Delaware on December 8th numbered hardly 3,000 men. Washington had secured all the boats for many miles up and down the river, and the pursuing forces could not cross at once. They took position along the river and waited for the stream to freeze, instead of building boats and pushing their advantage. It seemed, however, that the American cause was doomed, and Congress adjourned to Baltimore.

Lee meanwhile crossed the Hudson and moved to Morristown, where he was captured while imprudently sleeping outside his lines. Meanwhile the failure of Sir Guy Carleton to press his campaign in northern New York allowed General Philip Schuyler to send seven

regiments to the aid of Washington. These joined the army at Morristown, and the combined forces managed to reach Washington, who was encouraged to try a bold stroke. Dividing his army into three columns, he planned to cross the Delaware by night and make a sudden attack upon the separated British commands which were strung along the river. On account of the floating ice, only one column, led by Washington himself, was able to cross on Christmas night. A Hessian force, at Trenton, under Colonel Rall, was surprised, 1,000 prisoners taken and the forces returned to the Pennsylvania side.

After he had received reinforcements Washington again crossed into New Jersey, evaded the British forces closing in upon him by leaving his camp fires burning, and attacked a detachment at Princeton.

Several hundred prisoners, and a considerable quantity of stores were taken. The army now took a strong position at Morristown, near enough to New York to menace the city. Trenton was also occupied, and the British abandoned almost the entire state of New Jersey. The moral effect of this brilliant campaign brought many recruits to the American army, but its effect in Europe was even quicker.

The British authorities had been assuming the war to be nearing its end when "that unhappy affair at Trenton, blasted our hopes." In France devotion to liberty in the abstract was fashionable, even though it might be difficult to discover evidence of freedom in the political life of the nation. Hatred toward England on account of the humiliation of the Seven Years' War had induced France to furnish secretly a considerable amount of money to the American cause, and to furnish some military supplies. Benjamin Franklin had been sent as a member of a commission to treat with France, for recognition and an alliance.

This remarkable man was born in Boston and learned the printer's trade, after which he removed to Philadelphia. There he prospered through his shrewdness and his understanding of the mind of the common man. His "Poor Rich-



On Christmas night, 1776, Washington crossed the Delaware River with 2,500 men, and surprised a force of Hessian troops at Trenton, New Jersey, capturing 1,000 of them. The weather was so cold that the Hessians thought no army could move. This picture was made from the painting by Leutze, now in the Metropolitan Museum, New York City, and has become familiar through frequent reproduction.



Valley Forge is a village near Philadelphia. Here Washington's army spent the winter of 1777-78, suffering much from cold, hunger, and lack of proper clothing. Here we see Washington and Lafayette, tramping through the snow, inspecting the defences, and cheering up the half-starved and poorly clothed soldiers who were on guard duty. Much of this suffering was due to the meddling of Congress.

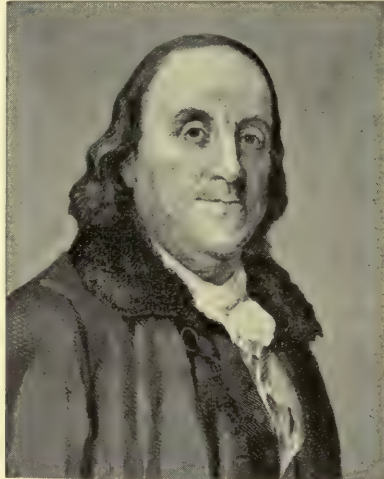
ard's Almanac," full of wise sayings, and apt proverbs, became immensely popular. He served many years as agent for Pennsylvania in London, and for a time acted for Massachusetts also. He had been prominent in the negotiations with the British ministry regarding taxation, and occupied a unique position. In France he was thought to typify American life, and became a popular idol. Shrewd, witty and far-sighted, full of homely illustrations, individual in manner and dress, he was equally at home in fashionable drawing rooms, in the ministerial offices, and among the people.

As a result of his negotiations, France agreed to make a large subsidy payable quarterly, and to send three ships loaded with military supplies. The nation was not yet ready to espouse the American cause openly, but many French officers had already offered their services to America and more followed. The most important of these were the young Marquis de La-fayette, and Baron de Kalb, a Bavarian, long in the French service. Other foreigners who served in the American colonies were Baron von Steuben, a Prussian who rendered invaluable service as a drill-master, and two Polish soldiers, Thaddeus Kosciuszko and Count Pulaski.

While Washington remained at Morristown during the remainder of the winter of 1777, attempting with the increased authority given him by Congress, to transform raw militia into an effective army, the British plans for the summer campaign matured. They were based upon the desirability of seizing the whole length of the Hudson River and occupying New York State, which was supposed to swarm with Tories, who would gladly flock to the King's standard. If

a wedge could thus be driven between New England and the states to the south, it was thought that the divided sections could be easily overcome. The plan contemplated: (1) that an army from Canada, under General Burgoyne, would advance by way of Lake Champlain to Albany; (2) that a smaller force under Colonel St. Leger would proceed up the St. Lawrence to Lake Ontario, land at Oswego, and go through the Mohawk Valley, rousing the Six Nations and the Tories, finally joining Burgoyne somewhere on the Hudson; (3) a part of the forces under General Howe would proceed up the Hudson, capture the fortified posts and join Burgoyne and St. Leger at Albany.

The plan seemed excellent, but those who made it in England seemed unable to realise the difference between the wilderness — much of it primeval forest — in America, and the open country in Europe, with good roads along which the supply trains might easily pass. Burgoyne had little difficulty through Lake Champlain, and when he arrived at Fort Ticonderoga was able to compel its evacuation with ease. The fortification of a neighbouring hill, which commanded the fort, had been neglected by the Americans, as it had been thought that cannon could not be dragged to its summit. The garrison retreated and joined General Philip Schuyler, who was using every endeavour to impede Burgoyne's progress toward the Hudson. Trees were cut down across the trails, and their branches sharpened and interlaced, great stones were rolled into the roads, streams were dammed to create marshes on the lowlands, and where the banks were higher, bridges were broken down. So difficult was the advance for the wagons and artillery, that the British army was able to make hardly more



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN

To Franklin, more than to any other civilian, belongs the distinction of bringing the War of Revolution to a successful issue, for it was owing to his efforts that France interfered and gave to the colonists the military and naval aid necessary to turn the scales in their favour.

The British Plan of Campaign, 1777

THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

than half a mile a day through the woods.

When Burgoyne finally reached more open country, Schuyler retired from Fort Edward and crossed the Hudson.

Burgoyne's Supplies Begin to Run Short Burgoyne reached Fort Edward, July 31. By this time his situation was becoming serious.

Provisions were running short on account of his protracted march, and the Tories had failed to render the expected aid. Though Burgoyne had done his best to restrain his Indian allies, they had committed atrocities which had aroused the settlers, and the militia from New England were beginning to threaten his lines of communication so laboriously hacked out through the wilderness. The expeditions from the south and west which he had expected to join him had not arrived.

Hearing that supplies were being collected for the militia at the village of Bennington, in what is now Vermont, 1,000 Hessians and 100 Indians were sent in two detachments to secure the supplies, enlist Tories who were said to be numerous, and incidentally to deal a blow to General Benjamin Lincoln in chief command of the militia. Under John Stark and Seth Warner the militia routed the Hessians at Bennington and captured nearly all of them. Burgoyne failed to obtain the supplies, got no recruits, did not relieve the danger to his line of communication and lost a thousand men.

St. Leger failed to secure the united support of the Six Nations. The Mohawks, Senecas and Cayugas favoured the British, but the

The Six Nations Fail to Render the Expected Aid Onondagas remained neutral, while the

Oneidas and Tuscaroras aided the Americans. The only fortification of importance on the way down the Mohawk Valley was Fort Stanwix on the present site of Rome. This St. Leger, with his combined force of regulars, Tories and Indians reached early in August. The Whigs of the valley, many of them of German descent, assembled to the number of 800, and under the command of General Nicholas Herkimer marched to relieve the fort. Near Oriskany the Indians and Tories

prepared an ambush, and here one of the bloodiest battles of the war was fought. The Indians and Tories finally retreated, but General Herkimer had been severely wounded, and the militia were too much exhausted to follow. Meanwhile the garrison of the fort made a sally, drove away a part of the besiegers and captured their camp and stores. Over the fort the American flag, recently adopted, flew for the first time. The date is August 5, 1777. Some wild rumours regarding the size of a relieving force which General Schuyler had sent under command of Benedict Arnold spread among St. Leger's force. Panic seized the Indians, and St. Leger began a retreat, leaving all his artillery and stores. The retreat became a rout and only a remnant of his force reached Oswego.

The expected aid from New York City did not arrive, and Burgoyne was in a trap. His communications were in danger, supplies were scanty, and the American forces were increasing daily. His only hope was

Howe Fails to Co-operate with Burgoyne aid from General Howe. Why did it not come? Howe had been given discretionary power when the plan of campaign was announced, and attempted to do too much. Instead of sending aid to Burgoyne early in the summer, he determined to take Philadelphia, the "rebel capital" first. Washington manœuvred so skilfully when the attempt to cross New Jersey was made that Howe decided to go by water. Sir Henry Clinton was left in New York with 7,000 men from which he was to send a part up the river if necessary. The news from Burgoyne at that time, however, seemed to indicate that he would not need aid. Finally Howe appeared at the mouth of the Delaware, at the end of July, but instead of forcing his way up that stream in spite of the weak fortifications, he sailed into Chesapeake Bay, and landed late in August. At this time he received an explicit order to put co-operation with Burgoyne ahead of any other plans. But it was too late.

There is an interesting story in connection with this order. In May, Lord George Germain had ordered that posi-

tive instructions to this effect be given to General Howe, but when he came to sign the letter, it was not "fair copied." The minister was on his way to the country and did not wait to sign a second copy, intending to sign it on his return. The letter was thrust into a pigeon-hole and there remained until it was too late to be of service. The second order came when Howe could do nothing.

The reason for Howe's determination to attack Philadelphia at this time was long a mystery. Finally it was discovered that General Charles Lee, who had been captured at Morristown and was held a prisoner in New York, claimed that he was ready to abandon the American cause, and persuaded Howe that the capture of Philadelphia would be followed by the return of Maryland and Pennsylvania to their old allegiance. With the Middle Colonies thus held, it was obvious that Virginia and the Carolinas could not send aid to New England and the war would soon be over. Howe seems to have been fascinated with this plan which Lee put into writing. Long after the Revolution, it was discovered among Howe's papers.

After landing, Howe with 18,000 men marched toward Philadelphia. At Brandywine Creek (September 11) Washington opposed his progress with 11,000 men, and in a sharply contested battle was defeated, but not routed. Howe occupied Philadelphia on September 25, and sent part of his army to reduce the forts on the Delaware. Washington, taking advantage of the division of Howe's army, attacked the one part at Germantown, October 4, and but for a dense fog would probably have destroyed it. There was no further fighting around Philadelphia, and Washington went into winter quarters at Valley Forge, to watch Howe in Philadelphia.

Returning to Burgoyne we find that on September 13 he crossed the Hudson. Retreat would have been wiser, but he felt that it would be dishonourable to abandon Howe, whom he supposed to be advancing up the river. General Horatio Gates, who, thanks to his talent

for intrigue, had persuaded Congress to relieve Schuyler and give him the command, had taken a fortified position on Bemis Heights, near Saratoga, which commanded the roads to the south. Two battles were fought, variously called the Battles of Freeman's Farm, Bemis Heights, Stillwater or Saratoga. In the first (September 19) the British were repulsed. In the second (October 7) they were defeated, largely through the leadership of General Arnold, whom Gates had relieved of his command after doing brilliant service in the first battle, but who fought without orders.

Burgoyne retreated to Saratoga and on October 17 surrendered his whole army, though he demanded that the agreement be called a "convention" instead of a surrender. Gates agreed, as he knew, though Burgoyne did not, that Sir Henry Clinton, with 3,000 regulars, was nearing Albany. It was agreed that the troops should be marched across the country to Boston, and thence sail for Europe, with the agreement that they should not serve again in America unless exchanged. Congress dishonourably broke the agreement on the ground that Burgoyne and Sir William Howe had not kept the terms of the convention, and the soldiers were sent to Virginia. Some were exchanged before the end of the war, but many of the Germans expressed a desire to remain in America, and were released to become American citizens. When the end of the war came, few still remained at the prison encampment.

The failure of Burgoyne's expedition had important consequences in Europe, as well as in America. On receipt of the news Lord North announced the policy of conciliating America, and early in 1778 was able to get through Parliament a bill granting all the colonists had asked two years before. The policy of taxing America was definitely abandoned, the acts changing the government of Massachusetts were repealed. In a word everything was granted except independence, and three commissioners were sent to treat with Congress. The news of the negotiations of the colonies with France, of which we shall speak presently, undoubtedly

The Hidden Treachery of Charles Lee

The Effect of Burgoyne's Surrender

The Battles Near Saratoga



SURRENDER OF THE BRITISH GENERAL BURGoyNE AT THE BATTLE OF SARATOGA

Burgoyne's surrender at Saratoga on October 17th, 1777, was not the least of the defeats which Britain suffered at the hands of the Americans. It was after this humiliation, which fell like a thunderbolt on British ears, that Chatham made his famous declaration: "You cannot conquer America. If I were an American as I am an Englishman, while a foreign troop landed in my country, I would never lay down my arms; never, never, never!"



BURIAL OF GENERAL SIMON FRASER, WHO WAS KILLED AT SARATOGA

Fighting under General Burgoyne at the Battle of Saratoga, General Simon Fraser was wounded in the thigh, and, dying on the following morning, was buried in one of the British redoubts. As the last rites were being performed, and while the chaplain was reading the service for the dead, the Americans, ignorant of the motive of the small group of people, opened a heavy fire, which they continued until not a solitary person remained. From the painting by J. Graham

had some influence with the ministry, but there was on the other hand a strong feeling that the war had been a failure. England could not afford to lose armies and gain nothing. In fact there was a minority in Parliament which was quite ready to acknowledge the independence of the colonies, men who felt that liberty in England depended upon liberty in the colonies. On the other hand, the country squires and the commercial classes felt that to give up the colonies meant the destruction of the British empire. Lord North's reversal of policy was more than a compromise, but it was too late.

During 1776 both France and Spain had secretly made loans to the colonies and had furnished arms. The French

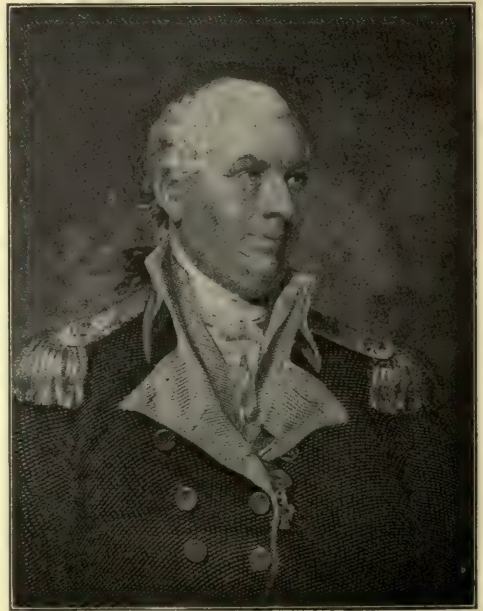
government had winked at the departure of Frenchmen to volunteer in the American service.

Franklin had made the American cause fashionable in France, but the initial success of Burgoyne's campaign caused the ministry to be wary. The news of the capture of Burgoyne's army came in December, 1777, and the announcement of Lord North's intention to adopt a conciliatory policy soon followed. The whole aspect of the question was now changed. The Americans had shown that they could fight, and by aiding them, England might be so weakened that France might recover the whole or a part of her colonial empire. If the colonists made peace with England, France's opportunity would be lost, perhaps forever.

Therefore, February 5, 1778, a treaty was signed by which France and the United States promised to make war upon the enemies of each other. The United States guaranteed to respect the French sovereignty of the West India Islands held by her. "This was the first and only treaty of alliance ever made by the United States." At the same time France urged Spain to join in the alliance. This Spain refused to do, but the next year (1779) declared war on England. This alliance, though valuable to the United States, was not universally popular. In New England particularly there was dissatisfaction with the policy of establishing close rela-

tions with the Catholic power which had been so lately inciting the Indians to commit depredations upon their settlements. The Loyalists strove to deepen and extend this feeling in every way. In the country as a whole, however, the alliance was hailed with joy, and the end was thought to be near.

One of the chief advantages from the French alliance would be that England's power on the sea would now be disputed. The importance of a navy had been evident from the beginning of the war. Congress, even before the Declaration of Independence, determined to



JOHN BARRY

Was an officer of the infant American navy, and did good service with limited means.

organise a navy, but both ships and money were lacking. A few small vessels, hardly one of them carrying more than twenty guns, were soon put upon

the seas, and served chiefly as commerce destroyers. Two of the best known

American commanders were John Barry, an Irishman, and John Paul Jones, a Scotchman, both of whom were consulted about the formation of a navy, and both received commands. Congress also allowed private individuals to send out privateers and several hundred British merchant vessels were captured

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within a year, forcing insurance rates almost to a prohibitive point. American commerce naturally suffered heavy losses.

With the French alliance, England was no longer able to move so freely, and the next year a small fleet of four weak ships was placed under the command of Paul Jones. The largest of these, the "Bon Homme Richard," that is "Poor Richard," named for Franklin, was a converted merchant vessel. Cruising around the coast of Great Britain, the fleet came upon the Serapis and Countess of Scarborough (September

fleet, and their operations were confined to picking off small isolated British vessels or to capturing merchant ships. In one of these new ships, the "Alliance," Barry conveyed Lafayette to France at the end of the war.

The winter of 1777-78, which the chief American army had spent at Valley Forge, had been gloomy. Food and clothing were both lacking and recruiting was slow. Congress had interfered with the organisation of the army, and much of this suffering was due to incompetence in the officers appointed by that body, contrary to the wishes of



PAUL JONES IN A NAVAL FIGHT OFF THE COAST OF SCOTLAND IN 1779

A native of Scotland, the bold John Paul Jones adopted the role of naval adventurer, and in 1775, obtaining a commission in the American Navy, he cruised round the British shores while the War of Independence was in progress, attacking the shipping. In 1779, as shown in the above picture, he captured the king's ship Serapis in a fight off the Scottish coast. His ship was the "Bon Homme Richard."

23, 1779) conveying some merchant vessels. The Serapis, though better armed, was taken by the Bon Homme Richard, after a desperate contest in which the Bon Homme Richard was so badly injured that it sank soon afterward. Another ship of the little fleet took the Countess of Scarborough. Though the crews of the little fleet were chiefly foreign, they flew the American flag.

Before the end of the war, several new vessels had been built in America, but they were too few in number and too light in armament to attack a British

Washington. While men were without food, clothing or blankets at Valley Forge, considerable supplies of these necessities were in stock at other places. Many deserted, and others came and went as their short terms of enlistment allowed. However, owing largely to the efforts of Baron von Steuben, already mentioned, much progress in drill and discipline was made during the winter. While Valley Forge was not the only camp at which men have suffered, it has always meant most to Americans.

In fact, a movement to place General Gates in the chief command instead of

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Washington, usually known as the "Conway Cabal," gained some strength. Premature publicity killed the scheme. Congress, however, showed from the beginning a lack of appreciation of military necessity. Promotions were made according to favouritism, or according to the residence of the officer. It was the usual rule, that general officers were chosen from the different

ment, and was there a staunch defender of the American cause. Howe's course seemed to need explanation. His slowness to press the advantage when gained led some to doubt his fidelity to the British cause. Undoubtedly he was opposed to the policy of the ministry, against which he had voted as a member of Parliament. He was, moreover, reluctant to treat the Americans as enemies, and pursued the policy of the "sword and



GENERAL WASHINGTON AMONG HIS SOLDIERS AT VALLEY FORGE

states in proportion to the number of the troops furnished, almost regardless of fitness. John Adams, later President of the United States, advocated choosing all general officers annually, and declared the policy of giving each state its proportion of general officers, "just and sound." Congress was in fact obsessed by the idea of a "democratic" army, and could not be brought to realise that such a phrase is self-contradictory.

The French alliance was now to alter the military plans of Great Britain. The blame for the lack of success was laid upon Howe and Burgoyne, but both made spirited defense. Undoubtedly Burgoyne had done all that could be done by a general without genius. He was returned to Parlia-

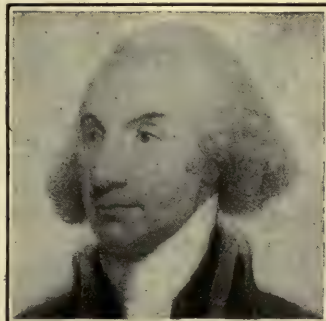
ment, and was there a staunch defender of the American cause. Howe's course seemed to need explanation. His slowness to press the advantage when gained led some to doubt his fidelity to the British cause. Undoubtedly he was opposed to the policy of the ministry, against which he had voted as a member of Parliament. He was, moreover, reluctant to treat the Americans as enemies, and pursued the policy of the "sword and

the olive branch" longer than was justified by events. While his personal bravery was undoubted, he seems also to have hesitated to sacrifice the lives of his men. Perhaps he was one of those men constitutionally unfit for high command, though successful as a subordinate. Sir Henry Clinton, Howe's successor, was ordered to concentrate his forces in New York, and Philadelphia was accordingly evacuated, June 18, 1778. Washington followed and would have cut off the British rear at Monmouth, New Jersey, June 28, but for the disobedience of that traitor or madman, Charles Lee, who had by this time been exchanged and had returned to his position as senior major general. Only Washington's fortunate arrival transformed the contest from a disastrous defeat into a

Howe and Burgoyne Called to Account



PUTNAM



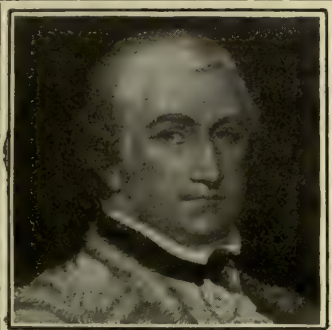
SCHUYLER



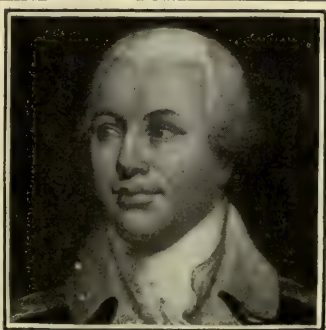
MORGAN



MARION



GREENE



WASHINGTON

SOME AMERICAN REVOLUTIONARY GENERALS

Here are six of the leading Revolutionary generals. Israel Putnam was a brave Connecticut farmer, who fought all through the war. Philip Schuyler was about to capture Burgoyne when Gates was unjustly put in his place. Wayne was sometimes called "Mad Anthony," because of his bravery, while Francis Marion was called the "Swamp Fox," as the British could not catch him. Daniel Morgan was a good officer and, next to Washington, Nathanael Greene, though he never won a battle, was a good general.

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drawn battle. Lee was court-martialed and suspended. Later on account of impertinence to Congress, he was dismissed.

English soldiers now held only two positions, New York and Rhode Island proper.

The Attack on Newport Abandoned

Some attempts to take both were made during the year, but were unsuccessful. The largest French ships of war could not enter New York harbour and this attempt was abandoned. A storm scattered both English and French fleets as they were about to join battle off Newport and the French commander, Count d'Estaing, followed the letter of his instructions and put into Boston to refit. American success in this undertaking was impossible without French co-operation to prevent reinforcements from New York, and the land attack on Newport was abandoned though success had seemed to be assured. The French fleet after refitting sailed for the West Indies, for the operations there. These

were, however, of value to the American cause as they prevented the sending of larger British forces to the United States and even required the withdrawal of part of Clinton's strength. We must not forget that the French were primarily fighting England, and not fighting for the United States. This pressure upon the British resources continued, and the next year Sir Henry Clinton was forced to withdraw the garrison from Newport. Washington could not take New York because he lacked a fleet; Clinton did not dare to attack Washington in his strong position. This deadlock around New York continued during the remainder of the war, though the main fighting was in the South.

No other engagement of importance occurred during 1778, though on the

frontiers the horrors of Indian warfare were let loose. The most celebrated was the "Massacre of Wyoming." This valley in northeastern Pennsylvania, had a population of about 3,000, nearly all emigrants from Connecticut.

On July 3, 1778, a party of Tories and Indians under Colonel Walter Butler attacked the inhabitants, tortured and slew a large number, and burned the houses. A few months later, the village of Cherry Valley, in central New York, was attacked and about fifty persons were butchered.

The next year, Washington sent General Sullivan with 5,000 men to lay waste the country of the Iroquois and to capture Fort Niagara, the Indian stronghold. The first part of the instructions was carried out and a band of Tories and Indians were badly defeated on the site of the present city of Elmira. Joseph Brant, called Thayendanegea, the ablest chief of the Mohawks, was not discouraged, however, and continued to aid the English.

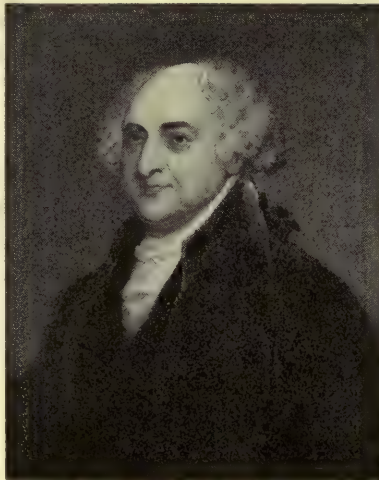
These Indians were

now dependent largely upon agriculture, and their houses were intended to be permanent. All through the region inhabited by the Senecas and Cayugas the houses, crops and fruit trees were destroyed, and these tribes never recovered their former strength, though the raids on the Whig settlements were continued.

About this time, George Rogers Clark, at the head of some Virginia militia captured most of the English posts in what

came to be called the Northwest Territory to which Virginia laid claim under her charter, which

gave her the land "up into the Land throughout from Sea to Sea, West and Northwest." His greatest prize was the capture of Colonel Henry Hamilton, British commander at Detroit, popu-



JOHN ADAMS

Representing Massachusetts in the first congress, this statesman proposed the appointment of Washington as commander-in-chief on the outbreak of the war; after holding the office of vice-president, he succeeded Washington as President of the United States in 1797.

The Northwest Territory Captured

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larly known as the "Hair Buyer" who was taken at Vincennes (February 23, 1779). South of the Ohio, the Indians in Kentucky and Tennessee were likewise defeated, so that with the exception of New York all the colonies enjoyed comparative quiet on the frontier. Spain also took some British posts in Florida.

The British campaigns in the north had been barren of results. Owing to the influence of Lord George Germain, a policy of marauding expeditions was adopted, irritating, but of little military value. Coast towns in Connecticut, Rhode Island and New Jersey were plundered and burned. In 1779, Portsmouth and Norfolk in Virginia were sacked, and later New Haven, Fairfield and Norwalk, Connecticut, were raided. Many of these expeditions were composed of New York Loyalists. Many Loyalists were encouraged to fit out privateers to prey upon Whigs by sea or land. It was hoped that Washington would weaken his forces by sending troops to protect these coast towns, but the American commander was wary and realised that his concern was the British army in New York.

West Point on the Hudson was the key to the American position and was strongly fortified. It had been planned

The Storming of Stony Point to guard the river still further by building two smaller forts below at Stony Point and opposite

at Verplanck's Point, but Stony Point was taken by Sir Henry Clinton before it was completed, and materially strengthened. Less than two months afterwards (July 16, 1779) 1,200 men under General Anthony Wayne, because of his daring often called "Mad Anthony," by a night attack took the fort at the point of the bayonet. This was one of the most brilliant exploits of the war, and encouraged the failing spirits of the people. Washington fearing to weaken his main position by attempting to hold the post, decided to dismantle the fort and removed the cannon and stores.

The North had resisted British attacks. It was now determined to transfer the war to the South. Georgia, the youngest and weakest state, adjoined the British territory of Florida. Savannah

was seized in December, 1778, the state was soon overrun and the royal governor reinstated. General Benjamin Lincoln was sent to command in the South and in co-operation with Count d'Estaing and the French fleet made an unsuccessful attempt to retake Savannah in September and October, 1779. Early the next year, Sir Henry Clinton transferred a large part of his forces from New York to the South and besieged Charleston. General Lincoln allowed himself to be shut up in the city and May 12, 1780, was forced to surrender.

There was a large Tory element in South Carolina and the state was soon overrun. Clinton returned to New York,

Partisan Warfare in the South leaving Earl Cornwallis with 5,000 men to secure the state and invade North Carolina. No organised army

remained, but the partisan warfare which soon developed made the British and the Tories exceedingly uncomfortable. Hiding in the swamps, or in the deep forests, these well mounted bands would sally out to attack isolated British or Tory detachments, to cut off foraging or recruiting parties and the like. Their information of British movements was generally fresh and accurate. Swooping down suddenly, a quick blow was struck. If resistance proved too strong, the men scattered and returned to the rendezvous singly or in small groups, or else went to their homes and became private citizens for a few days. The most noted leaders were the knightly Francis Marion, called the "Swamp Fox;" Thomas Sumter, the "Game Cock," declared by Cornwallis to be one of his "greatest plagues;" Andrew Pickens, and William Richardson Davie, the last named of North Carolina.

Congress, against the wish of Washington, who recommended General Nathanael Greene, sent General Gates, the

The American Defeat at Camden "victor of Saratoga," to take command in the south. Charles Lee, disgraced and dismissed from

the army, and living the life of a recluse on his Virginia plantation, warned Gates to "take care that your northern laurels do not turn to southern willows." In the Saratoga campaign victory had been organised for him by Schuyler, and had

been won by Arnold, Morgan and others. In the whole south there was only the nucleus of an army in North Carolina under Baron de Kalb. Arms, equipment and organisation were lacking. Taking this force and some North Carolina militia, Gates pushed on recklessly to attack Camden, South Carolina. The British force at Camden, under Lord Rawdon, might have been defeated, but Gates, who was reckless when he should have been cautious and cautious when he should have been bold, delayed until Rawdon had been reinforced. Finally Gates, attempting to make a night attack, was met by the British forces bound on the same errand. The 2,000 British regulars completely routed the American force of 3,000, many of whom were raw militia, on August 16, 1780, and the remnant fled to North Carolina. The brave De Kalb was killed.

Affairs in the United States now seemed hopeless. Depression and weariness were common, and it seemed as if Germain's policy of tiring out the Americans was about to succeed. Recruiting was slow and arms and ammunition were lacking for those who did enlist. The veterans of the Continental line were excellent soldiers, but it had been proved many times that the raw militia could not be trusted. There was no central government. Congress was a revolutionary body, entirely without authority, and had lost much of its prestige. The membership was constantly changing, and was largely composed of inferior men. The strongest men were serving their country elsewhere, or else heartsick remained at home. The committees which controlled military and naval affairs had no definite continuous policy, but meddled constantly.

The articles of Confederation drawn

up in 1777 were not finally adopted by all the states until 1781, when the war

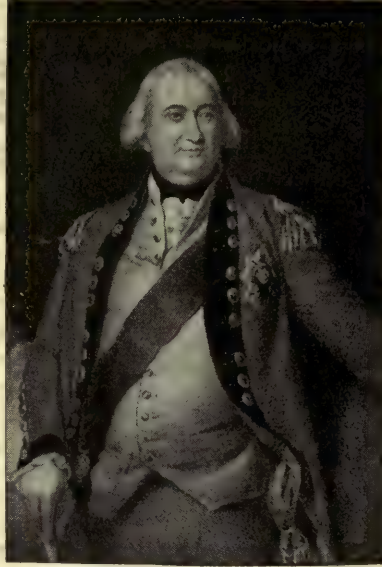
Lack of Organization Hinders Operations

was almost over, and even where the policy of the different states was influenced by the Articles, there was little gain. Congress

could get money and supplies only by requisitions on the states, and these requisitions were little heeded. Each state refused to do more than its share, and so did less. There were men enough and property enough in the states to have made an effective fighting force, if they had been utilised. The years before the Declaration of Independence had heard so much of taxation, that the idea grew up that taxation of every sort was a form of slavery. The legislatures would not levy taxes, in spite of the warnings of a few far-sighted men like Cornelius Harnett, of North Carolina. Congress, however, had assumed the right to issue paper money, hoping

thus to create prosperity.

The idea that money can be created by legislative act has always been strong in America. In colonial days, the desire to issue paper money had been one of the chief causes of disagreement with the royal governors. Every colony issued paper money before the Declaration of Independence and Congress followed suit. By the end of 1779, Congress had issued \$241,500,000 and the separate states probably \$200,000,000 more. Depreciation was rapid. In spite of drastic laws, intended to force the money into circulation, people refused to accept the bills, except at a discount, and even then thousands were ruined. A dollar in paper came to pass for less than a cent in coin, and finally there were some transactions at less than one thousand to one. In 1780, Congress acknowledged the depreciation by calling in the old



LORD CORNWALLIS

Son of the first Earl of Cornwallis, served in the American War though disapproving of it. He was finally compelled to surrender at Yorktown, Virginia, on October 19, 1781. Later he was twice governor-general of India, and viceroy of Ireland. This picture represents him in later life.



WASHINGTON ON THE BATTLEFIELD

This is one of the best-liked of the many pictures of Washington, though painted long after his death. The head is taken, of course, from one of the portraits by Gilbert Stuart, who painted several from life, and whose pictures have come to be a sort of standard. Several other men painted Washington.

From the painting by John Faed

bills in exchange for new, at forty of the old for one of the new.

At this time, when all seemed dark, another catastrophe occurred. Benedict Arnold had raised a company immediately after Lexington, had taken part in the capture of Ticonderoga, had led the unsuccessful expedition against Quebec and by his desperate retreat held back invasion from Canada for a year. He was a daring fighter, and his qualities of leadership were displayed on other occasions, particularly at Saratoga. Congress had promoted junior officers of less ability over him, and the discrimination rankled, even after his relative rank had been restored. When Howe evacuated Philadelphia in 1778, Washington put Arnold, who had not recovered from the wound received at Saratoga, in command of the city. It was an unfortunate selection, as many delicate questions were to be settled; and Arnold was hasty in speech and act, headstrong and tactless. While here he married Miss Margaret Shippen, a member of a prominent Tory family, and was thrown much in Tory society.

Quarrels with Congress and with the government of Pennsylvania followed, and charges were brought against him. He was acquitted on all except two, both trivial, which might well have been overlooked, but his enemies succeeded in sentencing him to be reprimanded by Washington. The reprimand which Washington imposed was in fact a eulogy, but Arnold was cut to the quick by the disgrace and brooded over his wrongs. Besides he was deeply in debt, as he had lived beyond his means. Finally he determined to betray his country.

Perhaps he was able to convince himself that he would really be serving his country by such action. The French alliance was not altogether popular, and many people feared the ultimate consequences. The British government had offered to grant all the American demands except independence. Congress had proved itself inadequate to govern. Would it not be better to give up the idea of independence and accept the substance? Such ideas we know were held in those years by many men who had earlier favoured resistance to the British

Parliament. Of course these do not in the slightest degree excuse Arnold's treachery. He was not the only officer who had been humiliated by Congress. General Schuyler, for example, had been removed from command just before Saratoga, but he remained loyal.

Arnold saw that if West Point could be gained by the British, the line of the Hudson would be opened, and only a miracle could save the American cause. Therefore, forgetting the trust which Washington had always shown him, he sought and gained the command of West Point in July, 1780. Under an assumed name, he had already had some correspondence with Major André, Sir Henry Clinton's adjutant. Finally a personal meeting was arranged and September 21, 1780, André and Arnold met to arrange the details. In return for the surrender of the fort, Arnold was to receive 10,000 guineas and a brigadier general's commission in the British army. André disobeyed the orders he had received to accept no papers, thinking perhaps to gain a firmer hold upon Arnold.

He was unable to return to New York by water, and was stopped near Tarrytown by a small band of irregulars, who found the compromising papers in his boots. Arnold was informed of the capture and fled to the British lines, just in time to avoid meeting Washington, who reached West Point the same day. André was tried by a military commission, convicted as a spy and hanged. Few cases in military history have excited more pity than the death of this young officer, who won the hearts of all whom he met. Arnold's lot was not happy. Though he was paid for his treason, he was often insulted, and is said to have died in his old uniform, deeply regretting his treachery. His wife followed him to England and some of his descendants attained honourable positions.

This disastrous year, which had seen the capture of Charleston, the destruction of the American armies, and the treason of Arnold saw, in addition, mutiny in the ranks. Ill fed, worse clothed and unpaid, some Pennsylvania troops

**The Treason
of Benedict
Arnold**

**West Point
the Key to the
American Defense**

**The Sad
Fate of
Major André**

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marched toward Philadelphia to frighten Congress. When approached by some emissaries of Sir Henry Clinton, who attempted to induce them to desert, they gave them up, but persisted in their demands which were granted. The attempt of some New Jersey troops to follow their example was promptly and sternly checked by Washington, who saw the danger of any laxity.

One bit of good news came during the year to brighten the gloom. Cornwallis, after the disastrous defeat of Gates, set out to conquer North Carolina, but met with a warm reception in Mecklenburg County, which he pronounced a regular "hornet's nest." While no organised resistance was made, small bands cut off his foraging parties and captured his cannon. Meanwhile he had sent Major Patrick Ferguson, one of his best partisan officers, to enlist the Tories to the west. The news of Ferguson's mission travelled fast, and soon he found himself in hostile country and gained no recruits. The backwoodsmen came pouring in from Virginia under Colonel William Campbell, from South Carolina, under Colonel James Williams, as well as from the North Carolina settlements on both sides of the Alleghanies under Cleveland and McDowell, Shelby and Sevier.

Ferguson, alarmed by the gathering, sent messengers to Cornwallis asking for help, and began to retreat. Overtaken by the advance guard of his pursuers, he took a strong position on King's Mountain, on the line between North and South Carolina, and awaited the Americans in confidence, declaring that "all the devils outside of hell could not budge him." These backwoodsmen, however, were used to Indian fighting, and, surrounding the mountain on October 7, began the ascent among the rocks and trees, picking off Ferguson's men as they climbed. Ferguson made conspicuous by his white horse, and the silver whistle with which he gave his orders, was soon killed, and the survivors surrendered. Cornwallis thought it wise to fall back into South Carolina, as he could not afford to lose 1,100 men. The Tory strength of North Carolina seemed to have been much exaggerated.

Meanwhile Gates, with the fragments of his army, advanced to Charlotte. Congress recognised the woeful mistake

in naming him instead of Greene, to whom Washington wished to give the command, and this time allowed

Washington to have his way. Greene at once began his difficult task. Daniel Morgan, who had retired because of difficulties with Congress, forgot his wounded feelings and came to serve with Greene. Kosciuszko, the Pole, and "Light Horse Harry" Lee and his cavalry also joined the southern army.

Though so outnumbered that he did not dare to offer battle, Greene divided his little army in order that he might harass the flanks of the enemy. Cornwallis' famous cavalry leader, Banastre Tarleton, attempted to cut off Morgan, who commanded the second division, but at "The Cowpens," January 17, 1781, was so disastrously defeated that only two hundred out of a thousand escaped. Cornwallis pursued Morgan through North Carolina. At Guilford Court House, a junction with the other part of the American army was effected, but Greene felt too weak to offer battle and crossed into Virginia. Cornwallis declared North Carolina to be conquered, but too soon, for Greene received reinforcements and returned. At Guilford Court House, March 15, 1781, a stubborn battle was fought. Greene retired from the field, but Cornwallis' army had been so much reduced that he felt the necessity of falling back to Wilmington, where he found a British fleet and supplies.

Greene followed for some distance, but when Cornwallis' destination was obvious, conceived the bold idea of ignoring him and redeeming South Carolina. The British held

several scattered posts commanding the interior

of the state, and these Greene set out to reduce. A sharp skirmish took place at Hobkirk's Hill April 25. Greene was forced to retire, but Rawdon was compelled to abandon Camden, and a little later Ninety-six was also abandoned, as the British did not dare to attempt to defend it. At Eutaw Springs, on September 8, Greene was again forced to retire, but the British force retreated to

Charleston. In all this campaign Greene did not win a decided victory, but he did inflict so much damage upon his adversaries that all the fruits of victory were his. He had excellent officers — perhaps in none of the operations of the Revolution was the average of the commanders so high — and he knew how to use them. The interior of South Carolina and Georgia was now cleared of all except scattered bands of Tories with whom the partisan bands knew how to deal.

Cornwallis at Wilmington could return to Charleston, or else join some forces which Sir Henry Clinton had sent to

Cornwallis in Virginia Virginia. Without the approval of Clinton, he chose the latter course. In Virginia he found Lafayette with 3,000

troops, principally raw militia, who had been sent to watch Benedict Arnold. Cornwallis, without success, urged Sir Henry Clinton to abandon New York and concentrate in Virginia. Thereupon he sought to draw Lafayette, who was "not strong enough even to be beaten" into a contest, but was unsuccessful, though the British commander once exultantly wrote that "the boy cannot escape me." Reinforcements came to Lafayette, and Cornwallis turned towards the sea, passing through Richmond, Williamsburg and much of the country later to be fought over in the great war between the states. Finally, early in August, the British army, now 7,000 men, occupied Yorktown, a village on the York River, near its mouth.

As mentioned before, Count de Rochambeau, with 6,000 men, accompanied by a French fleet, had reached Newport, Rhode Island, in July, 1780, but had soon been blockaded there by a superior English fleet. A second division of troops had been expected, but, blockaded in the French harbour of Brest, had never arrived. Rochambeau lay inactive at Newport, waiting for the second division, and not until May, 1781, was it known that it would not arrive. Conferences between Rochambeau and Washington discussed plans of attacking New York and also of sending aid to the South. Just then it was learned that Count de Grasse with a great French fleet would be able to spend a few weeks on the American coast, but must soon

return to the West Indies for the operations there.

Washington and Rochambeau adopted the audacious plan of transferring the armies to Virginia to overwhelm Corn-

Washington and Rochambeau March Southward wallis. Leaving small detachments in strong positions around New York, and leading

Clinton to believe that the siege of the city was contemplated, the allied armies marched around New York, and were well on their way to Philadelphia before anyone except the commanding officers realised their destination. On September 5, 1781, the head of the Chesapeake Bay was reached, and it was learned that the French fleet, with 3,000 soldiers, had already arrived. A British fleet, under Admiral Graves, attacked Count de Grasse, but was beaten off and Cornwallis was surrounded. The allied armies numbered about 16,000 men, of whom 7,000 were French. The siege was conducted with skill, and with perfect agreement between the allies. The French fleet blocked the way for any reinforcements which Clinton might send. Cornwallis recognised the hopelessness of his position, and on October 19, 1781, Yorktown was surrendered with over 7,000 men who marched out to the old tune, "The World Turned Upside Down." A few days later, Sir Henry Clinton, with a strong fleet and 7,000 men, arrived at the entrance of the Chesapeake, only to learn that he was too late.

The news electrified America, and staggered the British ministry. Lord North was in despair, as well he might be. England was at war

The Effect of the Surrender of Cornwallis with the United States, France, Spain and Holland. The other nations of Europe were unfriendly. Conditions in India were unfavourable, and Ireland was restless. English commerce had been seriously affected. After more than six years of war in America, the British held only New York, Charleston and Savannah, and Spain had taken the province of Florida. The West Indies had been all but lost. The loss of 7,000 men could not easily be replaced.

Moreover, in Parliament, in spite of bribery and corruption, the Whig influ-



A CAPITULATION THAT ENDED THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR: THE BRITISH SURRENDER AT YORKTOWN ON OCTOBER 19TH, 1781
Falling back to Yorktown, Virginia, Lord Cornwallis was besieged by the combined French and American forces. The only hope of the British lay in relief reaching them from the sea; but, as the French were in possession of the harbour, that hope vanished, and Cornwallis was left with no alternative but capitulation. The surrender was made on October 19th, 1781. This event practically ended the war, though peace was not formally declared until two years later.

ence was increasing. In 1780 the House of Commons had passed a resolution that "the influence of the crown had increased, is increasing and ought to be diminished." The younger Pitt had denounced the American war in Parliament as "accursed, wicked, barbarous" and had been applauded. Evidently the failure of the King's attempt to restore personal rule in England was close at hand. The Revolution was a triumph of freedom and constitutional government in England as well as America.

The House of Commons (February 27, 1782) urged the King to end the war, and, on March 20, Lord North resigned. The Rockingham ministry began negotiations for peace, which dragged along until September 3, 1783, when the formal treaty was finally signed. Of these negotiations and their effect upon the United States more will be said in the succeeding chapter. So far as the military movements are concerned, we can say that the Revolution ended with Yorktown.

Such was the Revolution. Judged by modern standards of military operations, it was hardly a war at all. In no battle or siege were 25,000 men actively engaged. Washington probably never had 40,000 under his command at any time, and usually the number was very much less. Many of the engagements which we have called battles were mere skirmishes, in which only two or three thousand men were engaged. These have been described at some length because of their effect upon the larger plans, and because they are a part of their history which Americans cannot forget.

Viewing the Revolution as a whole, we may say that independence was gained for three reasons. In the first place, England in the beginning of the struggle underestimated the difficulty of the task, and over-estimated the influence of the Loyalists. Too few men were sent under mediocre generals. Larger forces, better led, might have destroyed organised resistance as early as 1777.

The War Acknowledged to be a Failure

Why the Revolution Succeeded

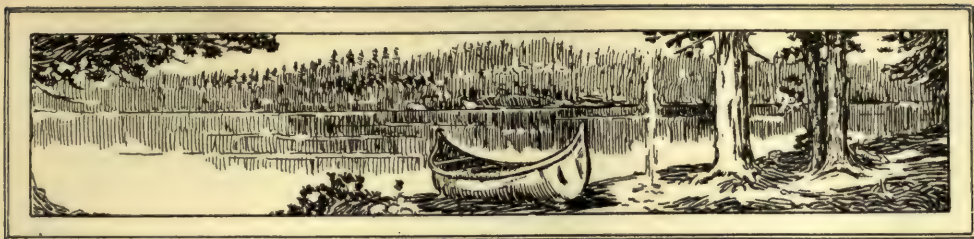
The second cause was the number of European enemies, which led to the French alliance with the United States, and prevented England from putting forth her strength against the rebellious colonies.

The third, and by no means the least important, was George Washington. He was not the ablest man in the colonies, and some of the officers who served with him had had greater military experience. Some of them, perhaps, were more brilliant leaders of men. But the combination of elements in his character—his firmness, his persistence, his caution, his audacity, his integrity, his patriotism, his lack of self-seeking—makes of him a figure worthy to be placed high among the great ones of the earth.

The spirit of Washington animated thousands of others less famous. In fact almost every community in the original states holds in affectionate respect the memory of some man or woman who was willing to make any sacrifice, even life itself, for the benefit of the common cause. In this brief sketch we have been chiefly concerned with great movements, and have therefore been forced to omit many of the hero tales of the Revolution, which have stirred the blood of Young America during the years which have passed.

The story of Nathan Hale is a striking example. This young Yale graduate visited New York in disguise to secure needed information for his commander, was recognized and captured September 21, 1776, and the next morning was hanged as a spy, lamenting that he had only one life to give to his country.

The story of Mrs. Schuyler, who burned her crops to prevent them falling into the hands of the enemy, of Mrs. Murray, who detained the British officers so long that the American forces were able to escape from New York City, and of Moll Pitcher, who is said to have taken her dead husband's place at a cannon in the battle of Monmouth, are only a few of the thrilling tales known to every boy and girl. It is proper that the memory of such deeds shall not perish.



THE CONFEDERATION AND THE CONSTITUTION

HOW THE THIRTEEN COLONIES BECAME THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

THOUGH Cornwallis surrendered at Yorktown, October 17, 1781, the treaty of peace with England was not signed until nearly two years afterward. It was plain that England could not conquer America aided by France, but the naval war between France and Spain on the one side and England on the other continued. Parliament authorised the beginning of negotiations for peace with the rebellious colonies in March, 1782, and a commissioner was appointed. There were many matters to be discussed by the British and American commissioners who met at Paris in the summer of 1782.

When Lord North resigned as head of the government, March 20, 1782, the cabinet formed by his successor Lord Rockingham, though pledged to American independence, was divided on all other questions. As a result, the negotiations were at first somewhat at cross purposes. Congress instructed the American commissioners not to make a separate treaty which did not include France, and to keep the French ministry informed of the negotiations. Since the United States were technically still rebellious colonies, the first negotiations were informal. On the American side the commissioners who actually took part were Benjamin Franklin, John Adams and John Jay. Thomas Jefferson did not go to France, and the fifth member, Henry Laurens, was a prisoner in London at the time of his appointment. The earlier negotiations were conducted for England by Richard Oswald.

Franklin first suggested that England should give up Canada. By the sale of public lands all claims for loss of private

Preliminary Demands Are Made

property, both by Whigs and Loyalists, could be satisfied, and boundary troubles might also be avoided. Oswald on the other hand was instructed to insist that no reparation for loss of Whig property could be granted, that the Loyalists must be compensated, and that the United States must also pay for the surrender of New York, Charleston and Savannah, which were still held by the British forces. Territorially this plan would confine the United States to the country east of the Alleghanies. In other words, the English government wished to keep the territory gained at the end of the French and Indian War. Of course both parties were asking more than they expected to secure.

Jay became convinced that the French minister was not acting in good faith toward America. Spain was an ally of France, though not of the United States, and a Spanish proposal suggested that the country north of the Ohio continue under England, while that part of the Mississippi Valley south of the Ohio should be "Indian Country," a part under the protection of the United States, and a part under Spain. The United States, by this plan, would not touch the Mississippi, and western settlement, which had been growing with great rapidity, would be definitely checked. Some of the French officials approved the plan, and also opposed the claim of the United States to share in the Newfoundland fisheries. This was a point particularly dear to Adams, and Jay was able to induce his fellow commissioners to break their instructions and treat directly with England.

Before criticising the French attitude,

HISTORY OF THE WORLD

we must remember that France had not embarked in a costly war primarily to secure American independence. America was only one party in a much greater struggle, and as France had risked much and lost much, the French minister, Vergennes, was willing to sacrifice American interests at some points in order to gain compensatory advantages elsewhere for France and Spain. In other words, though he was sincerely determined to secure the independence of the United States, he was not disposed to see them gain great accessions of territory at the expense of the European allies.

After much negotiation and many compromises the treaty was finally agreed upon. It acknowledged the full independence of the United States; conceded the right to the fisheries off the Grand Banks; provided that no impediment to the collection of just debts should be placed by either side; that all prisoners should be given up, and that all posts held by the British should be evacuated. Congress was pledged to recommend to the legislatures that the confiscated estates of Loyalists should be restored, and it was agreed that there should be no further confiscation of private property. The boundary was fixed in general terms on the line of the

The Provisions of the Treaty

watershed of the St. Lawrence, and through the centre of the Great Lakes. The commissioners were not very clear in their geography, and the Maine boundary and the boundary west of the Great Lakes were later settled by further negotiations. As the territory was then practically uninhabited no great harm was done. A secret article in the treaty fixed the northern boundary of West Florida (if England should secure that province in her negotiations with Spain) further to the north than the line acknowledged when in Spain's possession.

On the whole the treaty was a brilliant triumph for the American commissioners. They gained more than they had any right to hope. In England it was felt that too much had been surrendered, particularly in the matter of the Loyalists who had risked all for the Crown, and Lord Shelbourne, who became head

of the government at the death of Lord Rockingham, was compelled to resign. New commissioners were sent, but the Americans stood firm, and the treaty was signed on September 3, 1783. The French minister, Vergennes, though somewhat irritated at the American commissioners, was not vindictive, and even made a loan to the States the same year.

In America, after Yorktown, the allied French and American armies moved back to the Hudson, and a little later the French army embarked for France.

General Wayne cleared Georgia, except Savannah, of organised British opposition, but desultory conflicts between

The Army is Disbanded

Whig and Tory continued in South Carolina and New York. The Indians were still restless and cut off scattered settlers. The Continental army was formally disbanded November 3, 1783. On the 28th of the same month, Sir Guy Carleton, who had succeeded Sir Henry Clinton in the chief command, evacuated New York, the last considerable town held by the British, though small garrisons still held some of the frontier posts.

On the 4th of December, Washington bade an affectionate farewell to his officers in Fraunces' Tavern, now a historical museum in New York City, and departed for Annapolis to resign his command to Congress, then sitting there. Incidentally he presented his account of his expenditure, amounting to \$64,315 during his service. He declined from the first to receive any pay. After he had laid down his command, he hurried to Mount Vernon, which he had seen only once during the eight years of his service as Commander-in-Chief. He hoped to be allowed some years of peace and quiet repose upon his estate, which had suffered during his long absence.

Now let us return to the civil government, and study the condition of the new independent states. As has already been said, the Continental Congress was a revolutionary body, without definite powers. Just before the Declaration of

Independence, a committee was appointed to consider means whereby the states could act together, with greater approach to unity. After much discussion and consideration "Articles

The Articles of Confederation

THE CONFEDERATION AND THE CONSTITUTION

of Confederation" were adopted by Congress, November 17, 1777, and referred to the states for adoption. One by one the states finally accepted them, but the last state to adopt, Maryland, only agreed March 1, 1781, when the war was practically over.

These articles purported to form a "League of Friendship" among the states, but expressly reserved their sovereign rights. They did little more than

ure. No amendment could be made to the articles without the consent of all the states. In practice it was found impossible to obtain such consent.

Expenses should be paid from a common treasury which should be furnished by requisition upon the states in proportion to the value of land. The two most important requisites of government were denied. Congress had no power to tax, and no power to regulate commerce, and



WASHINGTON'S FAREWELL TO HIS GENERALS

It was Washington's intention at the end of the Revolutionary War to retire to the seclusion of his country estates at Mount Vernon, and the above picture shows the famous soldier and statesman taking final leave of his generals with this intention, a resolution which the new American nation, having need of his services, would not allow him to keep.

legalise the powers Congress was already exerting. There was no provision for

The Powers of Congress under the Confederation an executive, and no federal judiciary, though Admiralty Courts might be established.

Congress was to manage foreign affairs, declare war, establish post offices, build and equip a navy, borrow money and issue paper money. The army was to be made up of troops furnished by the states, which should appoint all the lower officers. Each state should appoint and pay not less than two nor more than seven delegates to Congress, but each state should have one vote, and the votes of nine states should be required to pass any important meas-

a government without the power to tax is hardly a government at all. Congress could not enforce its demands. It could make treaties, but could not enforce the stipulations. It could make requisitions for money, but could not compel the payment. It could vote to raise an army, but could not compel the states to furnish their quotas. It could borrow money, but could not take measures to guarantee repayment.

There was, as said above, no executive department. A President of Congress was appointed, but so great was the fear of a strong executive, that the presiding officer might serve only one year, in any period of three years. A secretary for foreign affairs, a superin-

**Rotation
in
Office**

tendent of finances, a secretary of war, and a secretary of marine were appointed. The office of postmaster general had existed from the beginning of the struggle. All of these were under the control of committees of Congress, and no man could serve as a delegate in Congress for more than three years in six. Any continuity of administration was thus effectually prevented. The value of experience was deliberately thrown away by this provision.

The reasons for these provisions were partly an outgrowth of experience, and partly the development of a theory. As the colonists viewed the question, in the days before the Declaration, they had suffered from a strong executive, represented by the royal and proprietary governors and the ministers of the King, while the assemblies had been the guardians of popular rights. Therefore, they took pains to establish a weak executive. The people could not at once realise the difference between an executive appointed from without, representing an external power, and an executive representing themselves. Their distrust of one coloured their attitude toward the other.

The unwillingness to surrender any power to the general government is equally easy of explanation. During the colonial period, the legislatures of the separate colonies had been the scene of the struggle against arbitrary authority. The states had come together for their common defense without giving up any of their rights. Why could they not meet the simpler problems of peace? Further, the states had been founded at different times, by men with different ideas and ideals. Their occupations and interests were different. What was to the advantage of the trading states of New England seemed injurious to South Carolina or Georgia. There was no feeling of nationality. Means of transportation and communication were so wretched, that there was little intercourse. The state was, therefore, the largest unit that the average mind could comprehend.

All of the theories of the Declaration of Independence and of the Bills of Rights of the different states had a pro-

**Fear of a
Strong Gov-
ernment**

found influence. The discussion of "natural rights" and "inalienable rights," which no government could take away, carried to its logical conclusion, led to anarchy, though few thought out the theory. Some men of the time did go so far as to hold that government was a necessary evil. This theory was well set forth in Thomas Paine's "Common Sense," the most popular book of the time. Of the same sort was Jefferson's theory that the government is best which governs least. The long discussion of British taxation had its effect here also. To yield to British taxation was a surrender of sovereignty, and the feeling persisted after independence. Resistance to taxation became an obsession, which had not disappeared in America even in the twentieth century, so persistent are ideas once the common possession of all the people. Here again the people as a whole only slowly were able to separate the idea of taxes imposed from without from taxes imposed by their own representatives.

Such was the government based upon the common ideas, which had to deal with the problem of independence. First,

**Debts of
the New
States**

of course, was the question of finance. During the war nearly \$8,000,000 had been borrowed abroad. During the next few years, nearly \$2,000,000 more came from the same source, the most of which was used to pay interest on what had been already borrowed, and yet it was not enough. The domestic loans contracted during the war were over \$28,000,000 on which interest kept piling up, until in 1790, the arrears amounted to over \$13,000,000. The separate states had made large debts which some of them were attempting to pay. In 1790 the unpaid portion amounted to more than \$18,000,000.

Of the issues of paper money, \$120,000,000 had been exchanged for new bills at the rate of forty for one. After the Constitution had been adopted \$6,000,000 were redeemed at one hundred for one. The remainder was repudiated, as was a large portion of the paper issued by the separate states. Meanwhile the states neglected to pay the requisitions of Congress. In 1782

THE CONFEDERATION AND THE CONSTITUTION

and 1783 Congress asked for \$10,000,000, but less than \$1,500,000 was paid. It was not to be wondered that in 1783 Robert Morris, the superintendent of finance, wrote to Congress that "our public credit is gone."

Already in 1781 an amendment to the articles had been submitted to the states, allowing Congress to levy an import duty of five per cent. All the states agreed except Rhode Island. Two years later a modified form of the resolution was submitted giving Congress the right to levy import duties on specified articles for twenty-five years, but only North Carolina and Virginia agreed promptly. The other states argued for three years, and it was finally granted under such conditions as to be worthless.

One pressing reason for the second attempt to levy an import tax was the attitude of the army. During 1782-83 the main body had been encamped on the Hudson above New York, awaiting the evacuation of that city. The pay of the common soldiers was in arrears, and they began to fear that if they were disbanded, they would never be paid. The officers had been promised half pay for life, but no measures were being taken to carry out the pledge. An address urging proper action was presented to Congress in January, 1783, but with little effect. Among the officers was a strong feeling that to disband would be disastrous, and a paper was circulated calling a meeting to consider their grievances, and a method of redressing them. In this action, which concealed a veiled threat, they were undoubtedly encouraged by many civilians who saw the need of a stronger government of some sort. Gouverneur Morris and Alexander Hamilton both wrote letters, which can be construed as urging the army to take control of the government. Some of the officers wished Washington to assume royal powers. Speculators and capitalists who held unpaid obligations of Congress wished some sort of a government which would provide for their payment, and urged the officers to insist that Congress provide adequate revenue.

Washington forbade the appointed meeting, but called another on a later day, at which he appeared and in a vig-

Washington Prevents Rash Action ous but touching speech warned those present of the dangers of their course, and urged them to trust Congress. As he began to read a letter, he put on spectacles, which he had never before worn in public, saying simply "I have not only grown grey, but almost blind, in the service of my country." The effect of his speech was powerful, and the meeting unanimously resolved to trust the justice of Congress and of the American people, but requested Washington to urge their claims. This was done, and Congress commuted half pay for life into a sum equal to full pay for five years, and issued certificates of indebtedness which were finally paid. The privates went home without their pay.

The news of the Newburg meeting spread, and added to two other incidents created a strong feeling in the country against the army. The officers before separating formed the "Society of the Cincinnati" to perpetuate the friendships of the war and to deliberate on the welfare of the country. Membership was hereditary, passing to the oldest son. The second incident was the visit of a few mutinous troops to Philadelphia. These occurrences caused an extraordinary distrust of the army. Men forgot that the soldiers suffered while they remained at home and saw only the possible dangers of military domination. They saw in the Cincinnati an attempt to create an hereditary aristocracy which might destroy their liberties, and strong attempts were made to have Congress revoke the Commutation Act. Nothing was accomplished, however, and the Cincinnati ceased to meet, though it has since been revived as a patriotic order.

The excuse for failure to pay the requisitions was the poverty of the people, but contemporary accounts seem to show that the people were not destitute. Fear of a central government, an almost insane opposition to taxation, jealousy of other states, and a persistent belief in the efficacy of paper money in creating prosperity were greater obstacles than poverty. Every state feared that it would pay more than its proportionate share.

To be sure, trade and commerce had to find new channels. The British ports to which American goods had gone before the Revolution were now closed, except upon payment of high duties, and trade with the British West Indies was cut off. Trade with France developed, and intercourse with the Orient began to grow, but British goods better suited our needs; no others quite took their place. John Adams was sent to London to negotiate a treaty in 1785 and remained three years without success. England believed that we must have her goods, and was not disposed to make concessions for which we could make no direct return. Further, the new government was charged with bad faith in the treatment of the Loyalists. On these grounds England also justified her delay in giving up the western posts which controlled the fur trade.

The Americans excused their confiscation of debts owed to British merchants by the claim that England had blockaded the American ports, and had often captured the very cargoes for which the debts were incurred. Several states, in face of the pledge in the treaty to throw no obstacle in the way of their collection, passed laws to hinder such collection by legal process. As an excuse they presented the fact that England had not returned the slaves taken away, or who had entered the British lines as fugitives. As a result, the Americans were the losers, for the English held the frontier posts in retaliation, and with them the control of the fur trade.

Congress was also pledged to recommend that the Loyalists be permitted to live in peace. All the states disregarded this recommendation entirely, and all passed laws making their position exceedingly difficult. In some cases, they deserved nothing at American hands. Some had enlisted in the British army. Ferguson's force at King's Mountain, for example, was almost altogether composed of Loyalists. In New York, and in South Carolina, the feeling between Whig and Tory had been exceedingly bitter, and in the partisan warfare Tories had been more cruel than the Indians. From New York they had made many

raids by land and sea upon the Whigs in the states nearby. But if one-third of the population at the time of the Declaration of Independence was loyalist in sympathy, a very small proportion had given active aid to the British cause.

Many who favoured the King had been among the leading citizens of their communities, men of property and standing. Their fear of the rule of the mob had great weight in keeping them loyal to the established order.

Many had lived very quietly, keeping up their usual occupations as far as possible, and had not given active aid to the British. After the war was ended, these found themselves ostracised by men who had stayed at home and given no more aid to the American cause than they had done, but who boasted loudly of their patriotic principles. During the war the estates of many had been confiscated and sold, and the policy was continued. Some who had been comfortable, even opulent, dragged out a miserable old age in poverty. Others refused to live thus, and sought new homes.

How many left the United States cannot be determined. Certainly more than sixty thousand. Many went to Florida and the British West Indies.

The Lot of the Banished Loyalists It is estimated that between forty and fifty thousand went to Canada, settling chiefly in Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Upper Canada, now Ontario. There they endured great hardships and privations. The story of some of the settlements resembles the early days of the Plymouth Colony. Families which had lived in mansions with every luxury, endured cold, hunger and privation. They carried with them little property, but they did take with them a hatred of America and things American which has not entirely disappeared to this day. During the War of 1812 the spirited resistance of Canada to American invasion was chiefly due to their influence. The British Government recognised its responsibility and gave large tracts of land, tools, implements, food and clothing, and about \$16,000,000 in money, but this did not begin to cover the pecuniary loss, to say nothing of the disaster of beginning life over again.

THE CONFEDERATION AND THE CONSTITUTION

It must be noted, however, that the highest estimate of the number of emigrant Loyalists is less than 100,000. If one-third of the population was faithful to the King, as has been suggested, it is evident that something like three-quarters of a million persons were allowed to remain upon some terms or other. The expulsion was by no means complete, though it is probably true that the most prominent and the most forceful men were compelled to depart.

claimed western lands. These were Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, Virginia, the Carolinas and Georgia. The contest over Vermont was rather a boundary dispute than a question of unoccupied lands. The other states had no such claims, and were jealous of the possible future growth of the more fortunate states. Therefore, Maryland refused to ratify the Articles of Confederation, until assurance had been

The Question
of the West-
ern Lands



Here is a band of hunters and trappers in the wilderness with their rude hut in the background. The trapper usually preceded the settler in the early days, and his trails later became the roads by which the country was entered. As settlers entered the trapper moved further west. Firearms were kept close at hand for fear of Indians.

The expulsion of some of these men was inevitable and desirable. Others could not have fitted into the new scheme of things. But there were many who could be ill-spared. In a day when the country needed every man to conquer the wilderness and develop the resources of the country, it seems unfortunate that so many men above the average in intelligence and character should have been lost. Their descendants bear some of the names most honoured in Canada.

Perhaps the most important action under the Confederation had to do with the western lands. Seven of the states, under their charters or by Indian treaties,

given that these western lands would be turned over to the general government. New York's claim was based chiefly upon the assumption that it was suzerain of the Iroquois Confederacy, and therefore entitled to the land conquered by them. The state in 1780 expressed a willingness to give up this somewhat shadowy claim. The other states followed with fair promises, and it was understood that these lands should be formed into self-governing states, and not held in subjection to the older states.

The cession of the territory claimed by New York was accepted in 1782. Virginia formally ceded all claims north of

HISTORY OF THE WORLD

the Ohio in 1784. Massachusetts followed in 1785, so far as her claims west of the present territory of New York were concerned, and compromised with that state in regard to what is now a part of New York. Connecticut gave up all except the "Western Reserve," a strip west of Pennsylvania and south of Lake Erie, in 1786. North Carolina offered her claim, now Tennessee, in 1784, but withdrew it and did not make formal surrender until 1790. South Carolina ceded her narrow strip in 1787, but

20,000 inhabitants, and when the number grew to be equal to that of the least populous of the original thirteen it might be admitted as a state. It also provided that slavery should be excluded from the territory after 1800, but this provision was struck out. Though adopted by Congress, this "Ordinance of 1784," as it was called, was never put into effect. Meanwhile the "Ohio Company," made up of New Englanders, many of them old soldiers, was formed for settling the West, and in 1787 offered to



When the West meant the country across the Alleghenies, a common way of going was to build or buy a flatboat, load upon it all the household goods and live stock, and then float down the Ohio River. This type of boat was called a "broadhorn" because of the two steering oars which you see in the picture.

Georgia did not follow until 1802. By 1786 Congress had title to all the land north of the Ohio. The ownership of these millions of acres was an addition to the national resources, and created an interest in which all of the states had a part.

A committee of which Thomas Jefferson was chairman prepared a scheme for the governing and settling of these lands.

**Congress Acts
on the
Land Question**

The report provided for either fourteen or sixteen states of which nine should be north of the Ohio. Pro-

vision was made for self-government when any of the proposed states had

purchase a large tract. Congress looked favourably on the proposition after some discussion, and just before making the grant, adopted the great paper usually known as the "Ordinance of 1787." This ordinance applied only to the "territory of the United States northwest of the River Ohio," and provided for its government.

Officials were for the present to be appointed by Congress, but as soon as there were 5,000 males "of full age" in the district an assembly should be elected, by those holding at least fifty acres of land. Three prospective states were marked

**The Ordinance
of 1787**

THE CONFEDERATION AND THE CONSTITUTION

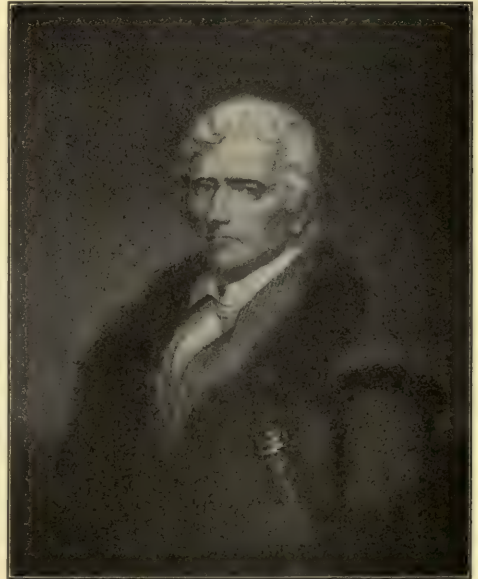
out, corresponding to the present Illinois, Indiana and Ohio, with the lines extended to include Michigan, Wisconsin and a part of Minnesota. It was provided, however, that Congress might make one or two states of that part of the territory north of the southern boundary of Lake Michigan. When any one of these skeleton states contained 60,000 free inhabitants, it should be admitted to the union on the same terms as the original states, and might be admitted with a less number.

These states were to be bound by certain conditions, including absolute freedom of religion, judicial proceedings according to the common law, security of contracts, and the preservation of a republican form of government. The "utmost good faith" should always be preserved toward the Indians, and "schools and means of education shall forever be encouraged." Most striking of all, considered in the light of later years, was the following: "There shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in the said territory, otherwise than in punishment of crimes whereof the party shall have been duly convicted." The author of the clause was probably Rufus King, while the man responsible for the ordinance as a whole was, it is believed, Nathan Dane, of Massachusetts.

General Arthur St. Clair was appointed governor of the territory, and the Ohio Company completed its purchase. Early in 1788 a party of settlers floated down the Ohio River and began to build the town of Marietta, the first settlement in Ohio. Congress had already provided for the division and survey of public lands, and the plan has been little changed to this day. Townships six miles square were laid out, divided into thirty-six sections each one mile square. It was provided also that one section in every township should be set aside for the support of public schools. The Ohio Company was to set aside two townships for the support of a university, and one section in every township for the support of religion.

While these elaborate plans for the government of the territory north of the Ohio were prepared, private initiative

had already begun to found states to the south. Daniel Boone, a native of Pennsylvania, but a resident of North Carolina, had led a restless life as a scout, hunter and trapper. Hearing of the wonderful "country of Kentucke," he made his way into the region and for nearly two years wandered over the region, a part of the time without a single companion. In 1773 he attempted to remove to the region, but was halted by the Indian campaign in Virginia, known as



DANIEL BOONE

"Lord Dunmore's War." Boone took part in the fighting, and in 1775 led his party to the banks of the Kentucky River and built a fort which was called Boonesborough. The thrilling story of the dangers and hardships is too long to tell here, but other settlers followed, and soon hundreds of homesteads of these hardy frontiersmen dotted the "county of Kentucky," which had been organised by Virginia.

The story of Tennessee is equally interesting. Like Kentucky, one figure stands out sharply, though James Robertson, like Boone, was not the first to explore the country which was to be connected with his name. Robertson led a small party to the Valley of the Watauga in 1770, or soon after. Some had fled from North Carolina to

The First
Settlement
in Ohio

The
Watauga
Settlements

escape the harshness of the royal governor, William Tryon, and had supposed their settlement to be in Virginia. When they found that they were still within the limits of North Carolina, the settlers formed a government known as the "Watauga Association." North Carolina asserted jurisdiction, and organised, first the district and then the county of Washington, which embraced the whole of the present state of Tennessee. Some of these settlers, under John Sevier, "the lion of the border," and Isaac Shelby, helped to defeat Ferguson at King's Mountain. Robertson, like Boone, was restless, and in 1780 led a party further west to the banks of the Cumberland, and founded Nashborough, later Nashville.

An interesting story may be told here. When North Carolina, in 1784, ceded the western territory to the general government, the people resented being transferred without their consent, and organised the "State of Franklin." John Sevier was elected governor, and admission as a state was sought from Congress. North Carolina repealed the Act of Cession and attempted to reassert her authority. Though there was little bloodshed, there was conflict of jurisdiction for some time, but when Sevier's term expired, no successor was chosen, and the territory remained under the jurisdiction of North Carolina until formally ceded to the general government in 1790. A sidelight on the economic conditions prevailing is cast by the fact that the salaries of the officers of the "State of Franklin" were fixed at so many beaver, otter or deer skins, and that taxes might be paid in various commodities.

The mountains were an almost impassable barrier to the transportation of goods in all this western country. The Mississippi with its tributaries was its natural outlet, and the mouth was controlled by Spain. The secret article of the Treaty of Paris of 1783 had provided that, if England secured West Florida, the boundary should be further north than the thirty-first parallel, which was fixed as the southern boundary of the United States. Spain discovered this

agreement, and demanded the boundary which had been promised England. Since she controlled the mouth of the Mississippi, and could also influence the Indians, there was much dissatisfaction in the West, of which we shall hear more later. A proposal to yield the navigation of the river in exchange for a commercial treaty was favoured by New England, but created great excitement in the South. This was one of the factors which had its influence in increasing the dissatisfaction with the Articles of Confederation.

Meanwhile there were other signs that the Confederation was failing to serve the purpose of its organisation. The stagnation of trade fostered the growth of a strong paper money party in all the states, and in seven of them it was successful. In New Hampshire the disputes between the contesting parties led to rioting. In Rhode Island refusal to accept the paper money was made punishable by a heavy fine. Merchants closed their shops and creditors evaded their debtors for fear of receiving the amount of their loans in the depreciated paper money at its face value. Much excitement was created when the courts declared the statute beyond the powers of the legislature.

In Massachusetts, where the conservative party was in the majority, there was a strong paper money party, particularly in the central and western counties. Lawyers who prosecuted men for debt were hated, and this feeling was transferred to the courts which tried such cases. In Northampton and Worcester, courts were broken up, and in other places judges were prevented from sitting. The militia was called out at Springfield to resist the rioters under Daniel Shays, an old soldier. A force of more than 6,000 militia, under General Benjamin Lincoln of Revolutionary fame, marched to defend Springfield. The rioters retreated, but were overtaken and dispersed at Petersham, February 3, 1787, though scattered bands preyed upon the country for some time longer.

Meanwhile the jealousies among the states increased. New Hampshire claimed that the contribution demanded

The State of Franklin

Shays' Rebellion in Massachusetts

Spanish Claims in the West

THE CONFEDERATION AND THE CONSTITUTION

for the general government was too large, as did other states, and few or none paid all that was demanded. New York laid import duties, which New Jersey considered unfair, and refused to make any contribution to the general government until the obnoxious acts were repealed. Another attempt to grant to Congress the right to levy import duties failed, because of the refusal of New York to assent. Rhode Island withdrew her delegates from Congress and appointed no others. Other states were unrepresented for considerable periods. The Confederation had failed. A government which had no power to regulate commerce and could not make effective treaties with foreign powers, and which could not tax, was impotent. Anarchy threatened.

Just now proceedings were in train which led to an escape from some of the difficulties. The importance of the

The Mount Vernon Conference

Valley of the Potomac as a means of communication with the West was recognised very early, and Washington became much interested. In 1785 commissioners from Virginia and Maryland met at Mount Vernon to discuss uniform regulations. Since the plan affected Pennsylvania, the co-operation of that state was asked, and the suggestion was made by Maryland that Delaware be also included in the agreement. Then Maryland also suggested that if a conference of four states were to be held, it might be wise to ask the attendance of delegates from all thirteen. The Virginia legislature accepted the suggestion, and the governor invited all the states to send delegates to meet at Annapolis in September, 1796.

Representatives from only five states attended, and no business was done. An address written by Alexander Hamilton was adopted, calling upon all the states to send representatives to meet in Philadelphia on the second Monday in May, 1787, "to take into consideration the situation of the United States, to devise such further provisions as shall appear to them necessary to render the constitution of the federal government adequate to the exigencies of the Union." It was hoped that Congress would approve the meeting, but that body at first

stood upon its dignity, and declined to have anything to do with the unauthorised body. Events moved rapidly, however. The danger of anarchy was obvious, and in February, 1787, Congress, ignoring the Annapolis meeting, called a convention to meet in Philadelphia at the time already fixed by the commissioners.

All the states responded except Rhode Island, though New Hampshire was not represented at the beginning of the sessions, and fifty-five men

The Membership of the Convention

met in the same hall in which the Declaration of Independence had been adopted. It was on the whole a body of able men, many of whom had already served their country in public affairs. The general tone was conservative, for the "excesses of democracy" had frightened some of the states. Among the members were Washington, James Madison of Virginia, Alexander Hamilton of New York, Benjamin Franklin, James Wilson, Robert Morris and Gouverneur Morris of Pennsylvania, John Rutledge and the Pinckneys of South Carolina, John Dickinson, formerly of Pennsylvania, but then of Delaware and others of hardly less note. Twenty-nine of the number were college trained. Washington was elected to preside over the deliberations, and it was provided that absolute secrecy should prevail until the work should be accomplished.

The leading figure in the convention proved to be young James Madison of Virginia. Through his initiative, the

The Virginia Plan Presented by Madison

Virginia delegates were prepared to present a tentative plan as a basis for discussion. The plan provided for a national legislature of two houses, with representation based either upon free inhabitants, or upon land values. It further provided for increasing the powers of the legislature, and for a national executive and a national judiciary. The first division appeared on the question of representation. The large states were determined that equal representation of the states should be abolished. Four states, Virginia, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania and North Carolina had considerably more than half of the population of the union. With New York, the fifth state in population, they

had almost two thirds, and the representatives of some of the small states were fearful that their rights would be endangered. South Carolina and Georgia, however, generally voted with the large states, while New York, as a matter of policy, did not.

Though the principle was adopted early, discussion continued and became so bitter that it seemed several times as if the convention would be dissolved. Finally a compromise was effected, by which one branch of the proposed Congress should represent population, while in the other each state would have equal representation. This compromise has had some interesting effects. It has been found that size is a mere incident, and that sectional or economic or geographical considerations are the governing factors in the action of the states. In other words, states have acted together because of similarity of economic or geographic considerations, without reference to population. If the large states had won their whole contention in the convention, the South could not have maintained its influence in the Senate so long as it was able to do.

In the convention even, once the question of representation was settled, the delegates divided on other lines. The southern states were agricultural, and feared to give the trading states control of commerce. On the other hand, some of the northern and middle states were strongly opposed to the slave trade, which South Carolina and Georgia thought essential to their development. Virginia and Maryland were indifferent, but North Carolina on the whole sympathized with the position of the states to the south. These two questions were coupled together, and Congress was given power to regulate commerce, and interference with the slave trade was forbidden before 1808, a period of twenty years.

The third great compromise of the Constitution was on the representation of slaves. The states where slaves were few were unwilling that slaves be counted in fixing the basis of representation. On the other hand, it was expected that a considerable part of the governmental revenue would be derived

from direct taxes. If these were levied on a proposed basis of population, the southern states claimed that unfairness would result, as the producing power of a slave was not so great as that of a free man. Therefore, it was finally determined that both representation and direct taxes should be levied on the basis of counting five slaves as equal to three free persons. This compromise worked out to the advantage of the slave states. Direct taxes have been seldom levied, while the slave states enjoyed down to 1865 the increased representation due to adding three-fifths of the slaves to the number of free persons.

There were many other compromises. There was some fear of entrusting the executive power to a single man. Several favoured giving this power to a committee, though there were a few who wished to give one man almost autocratic power. The

matter was settled by requiring the "advice and consent" of the senate in making treaties and appointments. While the President was given the veto power, this negative voice could be overcome by a two-thirds vote of each house. Some wished to elect the President by states; others by popular vote. It was decided that he should be chosen by electors, whom each state might appoint in the manner it preferred. Each state should have as many electors as it had members in both houses of Congress. This plan gave the smaller or less populous states a proportional advantage which has persisted to the present day. Since each state must have at least one representative, Nevada, with a population of less than 100,000 in 1910, has three electoral votes, while Colorado with 800,000 has only six. In the case of states with still larger population the discrepancy is even more marked. It was further agreed that if the electors could not make a selection, the choice should be made by the House of Representatives voting by states.

As other details came up they were settled in the same spirit of compromise. The Constitution as finally adopted was neither a confederation nor truly national, but partook of the nature of both. It gave Congress great powers, for what

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was well called the "central clause" provided that "This Constitution and the Laws of the United States which shall be

The Constitution and the States

made in Pursuance thereof; and all treaties made, under the Authority of the United States, shall be the Supreme Law of the Land; and the Judges in every State shall be bound thereby, any Thing in the Constitution or Laws of any State to the Contrary notwithstanding." On the other hand, the states were not wiped out, as advocated by Hamilton, but were left with large powers which Congress could not touch. Madison said, in attempting to define the nature of the government: "It stands by itself. In some respects it is a government of a federal nature; in other it is of a consolidated nature." It would be difficult to-day, after more than a century and a quarter, to define our government much more exactly. It is not a centralised state, as France, while equally certainly, it is not a mere league of states.

It was a government of checks and balances, inserted to prevent either the states or the general government, or any department of that government, from assuming undue authority, and exercising tyranny. It was, considered in one way, something new in political philosophy, and yet nearly every part grew out of American experience. Something was drawn from the colonial organisation, more from the experience of the different states in framing their constitutions and in living under them. The despised Confederation had contributed its part, and the whole was based upon the history of government in England.

Probably not a man was satisfied with the instrument in all its parts. Some of them became disgusted and went home

The Constitution a Series of Compromises

to become opponents of the ratification by their states. Others, who had been on the whole satisfied, were called home by personal affairs. Of the fifty-five delegates who were in personal attendance at one time or the other, only thirty-nine signed the instrument. However, at least one representative of every state — except Rhode Island which was not represented at all — remained to the end and signed

the final draft, which was the work of Gouverneur Morris. The date of final approval was September 17, 1787.

The completed Constitution was transmitted to Congress, where some opposition was voiced. That body, however, finally without expressing approval transmitted the document to the states to be submitted to special conventions, as had been suggested in the instrument itself. The Constitution had provided that "the Ratification of the Conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same." The idea that unanimity was necessary had been put aside, because of the experience of the States under the Confederation.

The Constitution seems to have met with approval at first, or at least its friends were first to express their feelings, but it was soon evident that strong opposition to ratification was to be met. Some of the opponents were devoted patriots who had had a part in the Revolutionary struggle, but who feared a "consolidated government." As Professor McLaughlin says: "There were men

Opposition to Ratification Appears

of wide influence like Samuel Adams, who had said so much about liberty that they were not conversant with the arguments for government." In Virginia, Patrick Henry and George Mason, patriots both, led the opposition to ratification. Henry thought the powers granted to the general government too large. Richard Henry Lee, who had offered in Congress the resolution looking to independence, also opposed the Constitution with all his might.

There were those who looked beyond their state but had developed sectional feeling, particularly against the commercial states of New England, and feared that all would be taxed for their benefit. Then there were the paper money men, who saw with alarm that the states were prohibited from issuing bills of credit. In the rural districts, where little need of government was felt, many saw no necessity of creating a strong central government. Then there were thousands who had no decided opinions on the subject, and were waiting to be stirred into action.

Little Delaware was the first to ratify, and by a unanimous vote on December 7, 1787. In Pennsylvania there was

Delaware the First State to Ratify

strong opposition. Dozens of pamphlets and newspaper articles were printed, but, led by James Wilson, the convention ratified, December 12, by a vote of two to one. New Jersey, after a week of discussion, also accepted on December 18, without any strong opposition becoming manifest. With the beginning of the new year, Georgia ratified unanimously on January 2, 1788, and Connecticut followed, January 9, by an overwhelming majority.

The first doubtful state was Massachusetts. Here the seaboard was favourable, but in the centre and west, where the embers of Shays' Rebellion were still

Massachusetts the first Doubtful State

alive, there was strong opposition, and ratification was doubtful. The friends of the Constitution managed to prevent John Hancock and Samuel Adams from joining the opposition. The former finally favoured ratification, but presented a number of amendments which were to be recommended. One of these, later adopted, stated specifically that all powers not granted to the general government are reserved to the states. In spite of the shrewd management of the "Federalists," as the friends of ratification were called, it was carried (February 7) by a majority of nineteen in a vote of three hundred and fifty-five.

The opposition in Maryland was loud, but could command few votes, and in April that state voted in favour, to be followed by South Carolina on May 23, also by a large majority. Eight states had now accepted the instrument, and only one more was needed. Opinion in New Hampshire was divided, and when the convention met, an adjournment was had to await the action of Massachusetts. When the convention reassembled, the Federalists were in the majority and on June 21, favourable action was taken.

The Virginia convention meanwhile had discussed the whole instrument with much bitterness. Here it was largely a question of state pride, and the fear of the tyranny of the new government, though personal jealousies

Virginia Finally Gives Assent

complicated the question. All the influence of Washington, who was not a member of the convention, and the skilful arguments of Edmund Randolph, Madison and John Marshall, later Chief Justice of the United States, were needed. Finally when Madison promised that the amendments proposed, forty in all, should be submitted to the states, enough doubters were won over to give a small majority. The date of ratification was June 25, four days after the action of New Hampshire, which was not yet known, and it was believed that Virginia had made the new government possible.

From the adjournment of the convention at Annapolis, the Federalists had been active in New York, where their task seemed impossible of accomplishment. The state had hesitated during the days when resistance to England had been planned, and during the Revolution its course was wavering, due partly to the large number of Tories, partly to selfish considerations, and partly to local rivalries. The second and third reasons continued after independence, and the opposition to ratification was formidable. The most influential man in the state, George Clinton, was opposed, and the great landowners were generally lukewarm or violently opposed. There was a paper money party in this state also. Another reason of weight was the unwillingness to give up the import duties, which were collected at the port of New York.

Hamilton conceived the idea of the publication of a series of essays explaining the nature of the proposed Constitution, and showing the need for its adoption. Under the title "The Federalist" they were published over the name "Publius" in several New York papers. The authors were Hamilton himself, Madison and John Jay. They had great influence and remain to this day perhaps the best exposition of the Constitution.

In the state convention Hamilton, Jay and Robert Livingston fought tirelessly and desperately against an absolute majority, if a vote had been taken. However, when the news of Virginia's ratification arrived, and it was seen that ten

THE CONFEDERATION AND THE CONSTITUTION

states had agreed, and that, besides New York, only North Carolina and Rhode Island remained outside, the opposition began to give way. Amendments were recommended, and a circular letter suggested a second convention. On the final vote, 30 voted to ratify, and 27 to refuse.

Only two states now remained. The convention in North Carolina found much fault with the instrument, and adjourned without action, doubtless hoping

North Carolina
and
Rhode Island

that other states would do the same, and that a second convention would be called which would in-

clude the amendments so generally desired. In Rhode Island, which was always in the opposition, there was a farcical submission to the people of the towns instead of to a special convention, and the instrument was rejected by a large majority. Neither of these states, therefore, had a part in the organisation of the government under the Constitution. North Carolina, after what are now the first ten amendments had been submitted to the states, came in, November 21, 1789, but Rhode Island stayed out until unfavourable commercial legislation was

threatened. Not until May 29, 1790, was the union complete.

In July, 1788, it was announced to Congress that as a sufficient number of states had ratified the Constitution, arrangements for putting the new government into effect should be made. It was decided that presidential electors should be chosen by the states on the first Wednesday in January, 1789, and should vote for a President and Vice-President on the first Wednesday in February; that the new Congress should meet on the first Wednesday in March in New York, and the President be inaugurated.

North Carolina and Rhode Island were still out of the Union. New York failed to choose electors, but every vote cast by

the electors of the ten states was given for George Washington for President. John Adams of Massachusetts was elected

Vice-President, though by no means unanimously. For various reasons, a quorum of Congress was not present until April. Washington was then formally notified of his election, and began the journey toward New York which the people turned into a triumphal march.



WASHINGTON AND THE FRENCH MARQUIS DE LAFAYETTE AT MOUNT VERNON

In their struggle for independence the American colonies had the sympathy and support of the French nation, not a few of whose bold sons crossed the ocean to fight against their hated enemy, the British. Chief amongst them was the youthful Marquis de Lafayette, shown with Washington in the above picture, who commanded an American division with conspicuous ability and success, and was publicly thanked by Washington for his military skill and valour.

From the painting by T. P. Rossiter



WASHINGTON'S FIRST ENTRY AS PRESIDENT INTO NEW YORK CITY IN 1789

Washington's journey from Mount Vernon, his Virginia estate, to New York, where he was to be inaugurated President, was a triumphal progress. He set out April 16, and made almost the entire journey on horseback. An escort from Alexandria accompanied him to Georgetown, and from thence, always with an escort sent out by the towns along the way, he passed through Baltimore, Philadelphia, and New Jersey to New York. Flowers were strewn in his pathway, and speeches of welcome were made. This old engraving represents him in the streets of New York.

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